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ABSTRACT

Texts of conference papers and summaries of colloquia on second language curriculum design are presented, including: "Competency Assessment in Curriculum Renewal" (summary of session with Ian Harrison, Francis Johnson, Christopher Candlin, Anthony Green, David Nunan, Charles Smith); "The Evolving of a Curriculum" (Hiroshi Abe, Kyle Perrin, Dennis Woolbright); "Managing Curriculum Change" (Christopher Candlin, Ian Harrison, Mercedes Mont); "Designing and Teaching a Content-Based Course" (Jerald Halvorson, Robert E. Gettings); "Global Education: Curriculum and Evaluation" (summary of session with Kip Cates, Carl Dusthimer, Heather Jones, Anchalee Chayanuvat, Michael Higgens); "Language Textbooks: Help or Hindrance?" (Jane Crawford); "Materials Design for Self-Directed Learning" (Nicholas Marshall, Marion Delarche); and "Developing Business English Materials for Japan" (Ian Harrison, Thomas Healy, R. Tapp). Individual papers contain references. (MSE)

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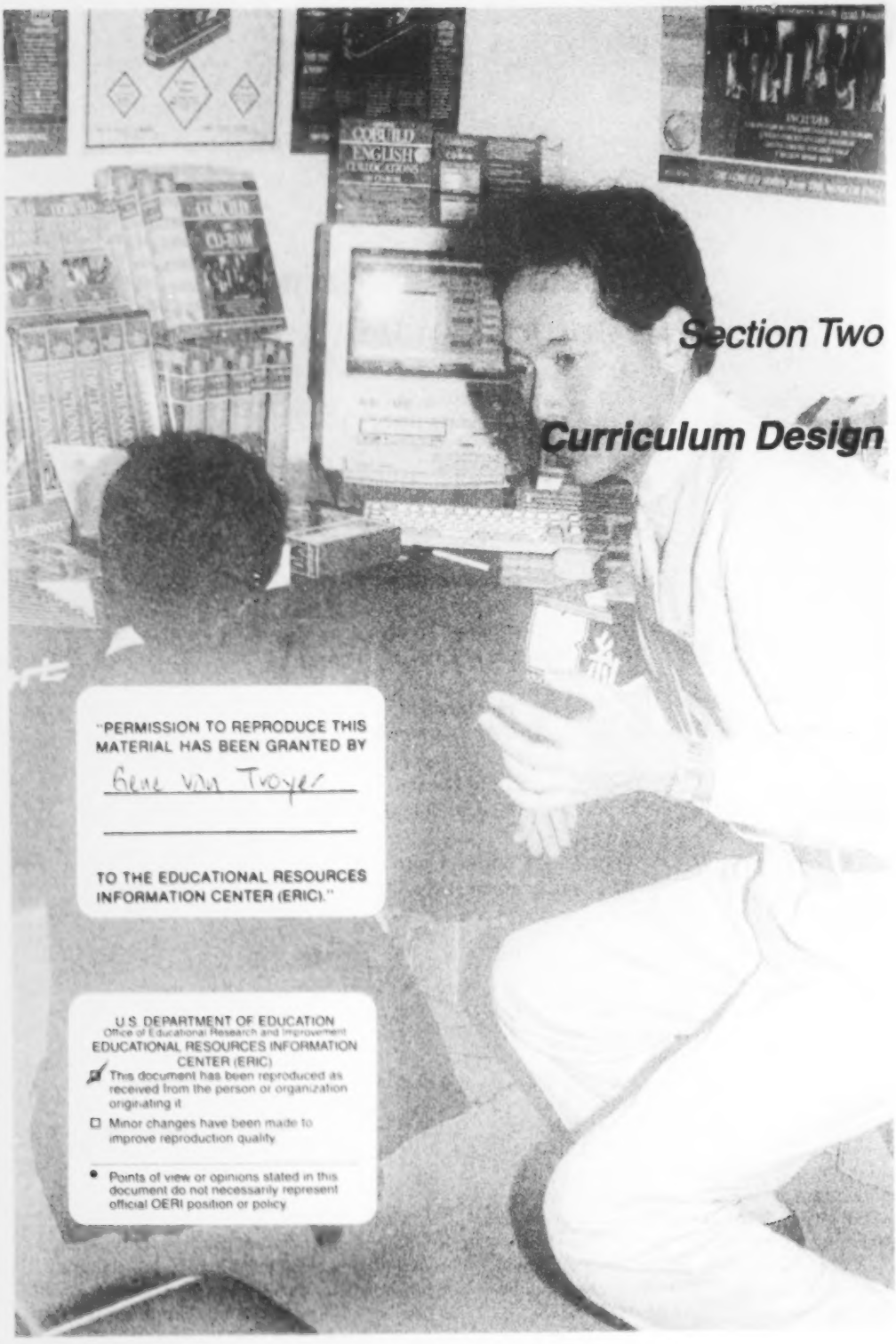

Section Two

Curriculum Design

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Competency Assessment in Curriculum Renewal

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From Proficiency to Competencies

Christopher Candlin opened the colloquium by describing how competency-based training is currently being widely adopted into language teaching and learning. Competencies are descriptions of what a learner can do after a course of study, stated in terms of the learner operating within a language context, using knowledge, learning strategies and skills. They usually include descriptive statements of what students are to do and what they have to know, as well as performance criteria and key variables governing performance.

Competency-based training, as Bottomley, Dalton and Corbel (1994) explain, has a number of advantages:

- learning goals are identified;
- curriculum content is made explicit;
- curricula are authenticated through criterion-referencing;
- all participants in the process are clear about its purposes;
- learning tasks can be linked to goals; and
- assessment of performance is facilitated through specificity.

There are also disadvantages, however. Theories of language and learning underlying the competencies are open to debate, for example, while not all language learning related factors of a psycho-social nature can be expressed in

competency terms. Furthermore, it is problematic to define certain competencies --"can get on with people in an empathetic way," while important in a cross cultural environment, cannot be precisely defined. Perhaps most importantly, while the learner may be accumulating various competencies, this does not necessarily equal her overall capacity--this would imply a (flawed) building block theory of language acquisition. The links between performance and ability are a matter of inference--that the learner can do Y does not necessarily imply that she can transfer this to what she has to do in X or Z. Finally, outcome oriented, competency-based teaching may ignore processes of learning which many teachers may consider more interesting or more important.

Competencies in Learning Tasks and Language Assessment

Competency-focused teaching is task-based (Candlin, 1987; Nunan, 1989) and typically consists of the accomplishment of criterion-referenced tasks, designed against specifications of particular language and learning constructs. Task achievement is measured against a range of performance objectives--within acceptable ranges of performance which are partly determined by reference to the constructs and partly by curriculum and learner group-specific attainment goals.

Candlin then enumerated various benefits deriving from competency-based assessment. Citing Brindley (1993) and Bottomley, Dalton and Corbel (1994), he indicated that although some teachers might disagree, it has been reported that teachers and learners become more focused on language as an assessment tool rather than on language knowledge. Assessment is integrated into the learning process through the use of attainment targets which are directly linked to course content and objectives. Learners feel that there is an opportunity for formative assessment against transparent targets during the process of learning. They can obtain diagnostic feedback on their progress and achievement since explicit criteria are provided against which to measure their performance. Whether learners can actually do this, with training as necessary, remains to be empirically discovered. Finally, if assessment of learner progress is expressed in performance terms, this is intelligible to non-specialists. This leads to better communication between users of assessment information--employers and educational institutions. Teachers as assessors have a responsibility, to learners, to parents, and prospective employers, to be as transparent as possible. Assessment expressed as a numerical score, although seemingly understood and appreciated by employers in Japan, can be interpreted in different ways. Numerical scores, as opposed to certification based on what learners can do, may cause problems when learners change courses, institutions or employment.

Learner Assessment as Part of Curriculum Renewal

After Candlin's theoretical scene setting, Ian Harrison described the context in which an assessment system is being developed as part of curriculum renewal at Kanda Institute of Foreign Languages. He mentioned two underlying principles of the new curriculum. First, it is "client-focused" with learners' needs and wishes at center-stage and secondly, reiterating Candlin's point, it is competency and task-based.

Harrison next outlined the work of one project research team which obtained quantitative and qualitative data on student needs and aspirations, using various data sources--students, faculty, high schools, employers, KIFL graduates. He briefly reported results of some of these surveys. It was found, for example, (Harrison, Gruba, Kanberg, Mont, and Olsher, 1992) that when asked what tasks they wanted or expected to perform in English, "to communicate orally with foreign work colleagues, operate in English in foreign countries, read brochures/magazines" were all ranked highly by students. When the team asked firstly KIFL graduates what tasks they actually perform in the workplace (together with the English skills needed for completion of the tasks) and secondly employers what tasks they would like graduates to be able to perform, they were told for example, "checking foreign guests into a hotel," "giving directions to foreign tourists," and "handling money exchange transactions" (Goodman & Orikasa, 1993).

The data gathered on what employees actually do--plus the language skills required - enabled another project team to develop performance-based curriculum goals and objectives. For example, the curriculum goal, "to acquire practical communication skills relevant and useful to the workplace" had among others the following associated competencies: " can meet a foreign visitor and introduce self, can take telephone messages, can make a foreign exchange transaction, can help a foreign customer open a bank account."

As Candlin had mentioned previously, competency-focused teaching is task-based and the instructional materials developed during the

project therefore focus on tasks involving, as above, meeting foreign visitors or taking telephone messages. Accomplishment of these tasks had to be measured; the learner assessment team had to develop a system whereby the institution, administration and teachers can assess student performance on specified curriculum competencies. This system consists of a curriculum-relevant placement test and procedures for teachers to assess formatively their students' performance on specified competencies.

Harrison concluded his talk by outlining some contextual factors which have affected the KIFL curriculum renewal. He mentioned the proficiency-based culture of Japan and the widespread use of letter grades--and the problem that these do not necessarily mean the same to all concerned. He mentioned also the importance in Japan of standardized tests such as the STEP or TOEIC. Courses in test-taking strategies for standardized tests have therefore remained as electives, and letter grades have been kept in tandem with a more transparent competency profiling system. Finally, Harrison stated the need to ensure that teachers, learners and administration, as well as employers, schools and parents understand competency-based teaching and assessment including the role of the learner in the process. This, he said, is crucial.

Competency-Based Assessment in the Classroom.

Anthony Green next described the classroom implementation of competency-based assessment. He outlined the previous, centralized assessment system at KIFL, where all students at a particular level followed the same course, at the same speed. The new curriculum provided more learner choice and the new assessment system had therefore to supply information on individual student achievement on a range of different competencies.

Referring to the work of the needs analysis and the goals and competencies setting teams, Green described the information gathered for the curriculum design stage, including course and materials development, but said that it proved problematic to develop criterion-referenced assessment tasks for some of the curriculum competencies. He mentioned difficulties with intercultural and learning-how-to-learn competencies. Even with communication competencies, such as "can negotiate a transaction," it proved difficult to deal with the narrow range of competencies, since they had to examine the overall specification to determine the different texts and settings. The team therefore created more detailed, more diagnostic competencies. Green exemplified some of these, "can initiate a transaction," "can sustain a conversation on a familiar topic," "can close a transaction with appropriate leave takers."

Green next described how six teachers trialling the new instructional materials were asked to assess their students using the list of competencies. The team wished to see how meaningful the competencies were and how they were relevant to students. He found that teachers had difficulty with the hierarchy of performance descriptions. They therefore reduced the number of competency statements and introduced a three-point performance scale:

- Can . . . with help from the teacher or while referring to prompts.
- Can . . . using one or two basic expressions and strategies.
- Can . . . confidently with a range of appropriate expressions.

Teachers are now using the streamlined list, together with assessment tasks, to assess their students. Green showed a typical profile which uses the three-point performance scale (see Appendix). Concerning the advantages of such a system, he said that a profile can show what individuals have accomplished--not all students in a class have necessarily done the same work. Since assessment is done in class by teachers, choices can be made on what and when to assess: the system has more flexibility than one centrally controlled test. Profiles also have a potential diagnostic function: students can work on identified areas of weakness. Green also pointed out weaknesses with the profile, for example, the lack of information on tasks done by individual students. He also questioned whether competency statements, even in Japanese, at the moment are meaningful to students who, it appears, do not use the information to guide their further study.

Green then mentioned a number of challenges to be addressed. The requirement to produce letter grades as well as learner profiles, he said, is problematic: "After the complicated system of assessment, the result is the same as we used to get," said one teacher. He showed how teachers have not yet fully understood competency-based assessment: "The present system does not evaluate students' ability equally. Each student should be given the same focus area."

Practical issues of implementation that Green raised included teachers being unused to integrated skills courses or to learner-centered

classrooms, as well as teacher claims that: "Generally, Japanese students do not reflect on the learning process, or care to." He mentioned concerns about lack of time for planning or processing assessment records, and that teachers do not understand how formative assessment can be used as a diagnostic teaching tool: "It takes up too much time and work which reduces the effort for teaching."

Ironically, although the assessment team wished to empower teachers, the system was perceived as threatening their autonomy: "Assessment ... tends to usurp teacher authority." and "The new system... usurps [teachers'] ability to grade as they see fit."

Green concluded by stating that teachers will need to be convinced that competencies are useful for planning, for informing and encouraging learners, and for informing the institution administration and external audiences of student achievement. He finally stated that the current competencies are still being trialled and are being revised and simplified using feedback received.

Developing a Curriculum-Relevant Placement Test

Charles Smith started by explaining why the team developed a test to place students in ability levels with regard to curriculum competencies. He said that the main selection criterion of employers was the level in which students were placed. The team realistically felt that it was important, therefore, to place entering students in a level representing what they could already *do*. In addition KIFL had used the Michigan English Placement Test for some years and, while admitting that this test ranks students on a continuum for assignment to different levels, Smith explained that it measures global proficiency through discrete point testing--under attack for some years now--and is not linked specifically to KIFL classrooms, the washback effect therefore being unhelpful.

The Kanda Level Placement Test (KLPT) therefore aims to distribute students across an ability range with regard to the courses offered and the competencies specified. The team also hoped that the test would provide diagnostic information for materials revision and for teachers before the year began. The test focuses on receptive skills and reflects the topics and tasks found in the instructional materials. Item types, since computer forms are used, unfortunately do not include short written responses and are true-false-no information, matching or multiple choice.

The time scale for test development has been from January 1994 to March 1996 to complete trialling and retrialling of items for one form of the test. When development began, instructional materials were still in the process of being written and item writers therefore had to rely on syllabus specifications and curriculum competencies. Item writers, however, were increasingly able to write from the materials, incorporating similar texts and tasks. Smith described how assessment item writing is very similar to materials writing and how there is a similar need to determine what exactly people do with a text in the real world. He showed how one text--a travel brochure--is used to test student ability to scan to find specific information on, for example, prices and dates. He emphasized that this kind of text and associated tasks are similar to those which confront the student in her courses.

Smith briefly described the editing of items by teachers and project personnel to identify problems with text, rubrics or with the assessment tasks themselves. He next explained how items were trialled by administering versions of the test to batches of students and then subjecting the results to standard statistical analysis for item facility and item discrimination. This information was used to revise or eliminate items.

Smith concluded by indicating future work on the test--the addition of productive skills items and further refinement of existing items.

The Role of the Learner in the Assessment Process

David Nunan described briefly the targeted action research planned as part of the Kanda project in order to look at the effect of giving learners the opportunity to reflect on the learning process and involving them systematically in self-monitoring and self-assessment. However, since the full curriculum was only implemented in the 1995-1996 academic year, no research has been completed. He wished, therefore, to report on an action research study of a group of not dissimilar students at the University of Hong Kong.

The research questions investigated in the study were:

- Does guided reflection and self-reporting lead to greater sensitivity to the language learning process on the part of the students?
- What effect does guided reflection and self-reporting have on the development of learning skills?
- To what extent do guided reflection and self-reporting lead learners to formulate more realistic learning goals?

During the course of the semester, students completed a weekly form and were also interviewed using their answers as a basis for discussion. They had to complete statements such as:

- This week I studied:
- This week I learned:
- This week I used my English in these places:
- This week I made these mistakes:
- My difficulties are:
- My learning and practicing plans for next week are:

Nunan showed how the process of answering the questions made students more aware of, for example, opportunities for using English outside the classroom. He explained the qualitative analysis done on the student responses, comparing what they wrote at the beginning and the end of the course and gave some examples of the differences. For instance, one student wrote early in the course (This week I studied:) "The nature of verbs." while at the end she was writing, "I read a journal article called Geographic which is published in New Zealand. I have spent an hour to discussion with my psychology classmates." Or (I would like to know:) "How to improve my English." versus "The method that can improve both my listening and speaking skills."

Conclusions drawn by Nunan included the fact that opportunities for self-assessment do seem to lead to greater sensitivity to the learning process over time and to greater articulation of the kinds of processes that were occurring. He said that learners also made greater connections at the end of the semester between what they did in the English support courses and what they had to do in their regular content courses. However, one of the conclusions reached was that the ability to reflect and self-report varies dramatically from learner to learner, and seems to be a cognitive, personality variable. Some learners seem to grasp quickly what is required and to benefit from it, while others showed little movement over time. This might be due, said Nunan, to affective factors such as lack of previous success and therefore interest in English, or could be due to cognitive styles. This would be useful further research.

Nunan emphasized that it was important for the reflection process to be voluntary: if students find it burdensome this is likely to have a negative effect, and results may be the opposite of what was hoped for. He said that it was encouraging that learners could develop skills for articulating what they want to learn and how they want to learn, although it was unclear from the study whether they were simply appropriating the necessary discourse or whether they had made significant cognitive developments.

Nunan finished by describing the next stage of the research: written responses have been dropped in favor of two-weekly interviews conducted (in English) by a co-teaching colleague who is Cantonese speaking and who can therefore pursue interesting issues. Much more qualitative and informed data are therefore being obtained. He emphasized that this kind of research is valuable, providing insights into what learners actually think. As the Kanda curriculum settles down, it is hoped to conduct similar studies with the students.

Francis Johnson closed the colloquium by saying that while much interesting work and research had been accomplished, the assessment system designed to assess learners against specified competencies is still at an early stage of development. The current evaluation process, he said, will strengthen and improve the system for the next academic year.

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Appendix

Junko Kanda Id. Number 567890 Class code 1234

In class work this session Junko has shown the ability to do the following in English...

3 Without support, and with a range of strategies as appropriate, Junko can:

S24 Sustain a conversation by giving relevant information or extended responses
W3 Complete short tasks which place a clear structure on the text

2 Independently, in familiar contexts, Junko can:

S25 Sustain a conversation through common questions and short responses
S29 Use interjections, relevant questions or other techniques to encourage conversation
W11 Organize work using layout headings and format
R6 identify opinions stated in text
L19 make inferences from information provided in text

1 Using prompts, or with help from other students Junko can:

S17 Give extended presentations on familiar topics
W21 Write and structure extended texts

The Evolving of a Curriculum

Hiroshi Abe, Kyle Perrin
& Dennis Woolbright
Seinan Jo Women's Junior College

Discussions of curriculum, including English language arts curriculum, often focus on courses, methods and materials, because most discussions occur on a department level rather than beginning, where they should begin, at the institutional level. This paper explains curriculum management by using examples from a junior college Department of English as the faculty implemented a new curriculum. An effective management system ultimately determines choice of methods and materials and gives better focus to proposals for curriculum change.

A well-defined sequence of activities were followed in the process of curriculum change. Each step was governed by a time-line so that all changes could be presented to Monbusho by the appropriate date. The process was unusual in that the committee was made up equally of native English speakers and Japanese professors, and all were involved in the decision making process.

Monbusho's *Revised Standards for Colleges and Universities*, which were promulgated in July 1991, certainly shook up the world of university English education in Japan. According to *The Daily Yomiuri* (Sept. 17, 1992), Professor Shimemura, speaking at a symposium held at Waseda University, stated that, "The most noteworthy point is that the standards stress the importance of designing systematic curriculums at the initiative of individual schools." Thus it is important that university faculty cooperate with one another to discuss how they can provide their students with the most effective education working toward an ideal curriculum.

Curriculum management begins with statements of philosophy, role and scope. Without clear statements under these two headings, the school or department has no control over curriculum decisions. If there is no role and scope statement, the school has no target population from which to recruit.

Without a "target group," the public relations department is inefficient. Their publicity effort has no direction toward the kind of students the school can best serve. Our school has a sister-school relationship with an American school and desires to encourage international education. Recruitment efforts focus on students who wish to study abroad, and curriculum efforts hope to ensure delivery of the advertised program with courses designed to give students enough skills to take advantage of the experience. If recruitment efforts and curriculum decisions are to be efficient, the "image" of the institution cannot be vague. The English Department followed a well-defined sequence of activities in the process of curriculum change. Each step was governed by a time-line so that all changes could be presented to Monbusho by the appropriate date.

Curriculum Procedure

First, the curriculum committee considered current conditions in the college, community, nation and the world. Second, they identified characteristics of a good citizen in such a society. Third, they listed the broad knowledge and skills necessary to produce the ideal graduate citizen. Fourth, the committee wrote College Goals and Department Objectives to develop in students the desired knowledge and skills. Fifth, they identified courses responsible for satisfying each objective. In this process, the committee at every

step worked with the full English faculty for approval and support of the philosophy, goals, and objectives. Every course included in the new curriculum has a clear description, list of objectives and procedures. Each course was examined and evaluated in the light of departmental objectives and goals. In this process some courses were combined, eliminated, or added as needed to meet objectives. Finally, the faculty produced course syllabi.

Statement of Educational Philosophy

A statement of educational philosophy is based on an analysis of current conditions in the school, community, nation and world. That includes information and direction from Monbusho. The statements identify the knowledge and skills needed by an ideal citizen in such a society. For purpose of illustration, we will list only two statements of philosophy from our program to show how these statements influence curricular decisions:

> 1. The greatest natural resource of any nation is its people. A wise nation provides opportunities for all citizens to develop individual skills to the maximum. This condition is especially important in a democratic society.
>
> 2. "Effective citizenship is impossible without the ability to think. The good citizen, the one who contributes effectively and responsibly to the management of the public business in a free society, can fill his role only if he is aware of the values of his society. ...He must have in addition the intellectual means to study events, to relate his values to them, and to make wise decisions as to his own actions. He must also be skilled in the processes of communication and must understand both the potentialities and the limitations of communication among individuals and groups." (National Education Association, 1961, p. 6)

Each statement of philosophy describes current and anticipated future conditions in the society where the student will live. The school's purpose is to educate students to live in such a society. Therefore, the next step is to determine what knowledge and skills would prepare students to function as effective citizens in that society.

Institutional Goals

Institutional goals describe the knowledge and skills necessary for a person to function effectively in the society described by the philosophy. Goals are broad statements which include *all* the knowledge, understanding and skills taught by the institution. That sounds difficult, but it isn't. Most institutions would write four to seven goals. Goals are often not stated in behavioral terms of what students can do. Our college had no institution-level goals based on a statement of philosophy. Therefore, our English Department faculty wrote the following college-wide goals based on our statements of philosophy.

***Institutional Goals:* The student who graduates from Seinan Jo Women's Junior College will be able to do the following:**

1. Think for herself. (Philosophy 1, 2)
   a. Use independent learning skills. (Philosophy 1)
   b. Use thinking processes of analysis, evaluation, synthesis, and application. (Philosophy 2)
   c. Apply knowledge to personal, family, social, and professional situations. (Philosophy 2)

2. Communicate effectively in writing and orally in a variety of settings. (Philosophy 2)
   a. Communicate effectively.
   b. Communicate effectively through public speaking and in small and large group discussions.
   c. Communicate effectively in themes and research papers.
   d. Read effectively.
3. Demonstrate and understand the influence of culture on life choices. (Philosophy 2)
   a. Analyze the Japanese culture and at least one other culture.
   b. Examine causes of conflict and conflict resolution between cultures.
   c. Describe the effect of culture on personal and national decisions.
   d. Explore the history and value systems which produce differences in cultures.
   e. Relate to people from other cultures and, when possible, experience life in other cultures.

Department Objectives

Each goal comes from the statements of philosophy and should relate to every depart-

ment in the institution. Each department objective should relate directly to one or more institutional goals. Department faculty must examine graduation requirements to determine which courses teach the knowledge and skills outlined by the institutional goals.

Department objectives are behavioral statements of skills which students develop by taking department courses. Because department objectives support institutional goals, if students can do the department objectives, they will meet the institution's goals. Therefore, the beginning point for writing department objectives lies in analysis of institutional goals. Decide first where you are going — the goals and objectives. Then decide how to get there — the methods. For the present, the focus must be on the skills which students will have upon completion of the department graduation requirements. Regardless of the skill level which the student possesses at entry, what must she be able to do upon completion of the department curriculum in order to meet institutional goals?

For example, our English Department faculty wrote the following department objectives related to institutional goals. If a student can accomplish what the department objectives say, they can also accomplish the institutional goals.

List of English Department Objectives

The English department graduate will be able to:

1. Think for herself: analyze, compare, contrast, synthesize (bring ideas together), evaluate and provide supporting evidence for ideas expressed in the English language.
2. Describe her own and other cultures. Identify causes and propose solutions to cultural conflicts. Give examples of reciprocal influences between language and culture and the effects of culture on life choices.
3. Communicate effectively in spoken and written English in a variety of settings. Communication skills include listening, speaking, reading and writing.
4. Use appropriate personal, general vocational and social skills related to life.
5. Identify solutions to problems related to aging.
6. Describe problems and proposed solutions to problems related to the changing role of women in society.
7. Identify basic Christian beliefs and values related to personal and social life.

Course Review

The next step in the management process answers this question: Where (in what courses) will these student skills be developed? To answer this question the faculty must examine every course to determine its relationship to the department objectives and to other courses.

During this examination the faculty will readily identify courses which have no relationship to skills which the department and institution propose to teach. Those courses should be eliminated or brought in line with goals and department objectives. Our department dropped a course in "Journalistic Writing" because it was beyond the role and scope of our college and a new course called "Media English" was created which more closely fit our goals and objectives.

The faculty may also discover that there is no course which relates to the stated goals or objectives. In this situation a course must be added. In our case, we added courses in word processing in English using Macintosh and IBM personal computer labs. These courses assist in meeting Institutional Goal Two and Department Objectives Three and Four. Students begin by learning keyboard skills and conclude by writing business correspondence as well as themes and reports for other courses.

To examine individual courses, the curriculum committee must know the current objectives for every course offered in the department. The committee in a regular department faculty meeting discussed elements of good behavioral objectives. They were given a list of sample verbs which would make objectives clear and behavioral. The committee asked each faculty member to submit a list of behavioral objectives for each course taught. We asked only for objectives — not syllabi. The committee then examined all course objectives to determine how they related to goals and department objectives.

Invariably, faculty involved in this process will identify overlapping among courses. Since "spaced recall" is an accepted learning process, duplication is not necessarily bad. But when duplication is excessive, one course should be dropped. By working with faculty who taught the courses, we combined objectives from a first-year Business English, and Business Writing course, into one course. We identified appropriate objectives to lay a foundation for entry to the second-year course. In this manner, we worked with each individual faculty member to bring course objectives in line with department objectives.

The process of individual course review is time consuming. Nevertheless this effort coordinates the instructional program with the desired goals. After adjusting course structures, eliminat-

ing courses, adding courses, and adjusting course objectives to fit department objectives, we were ready for faculty to submit course syllabi. The syllabi with their objectives clearly stated provide continuity when faculty changes occur. This is especially important in management of courses taught by part-time faculty.

Methods, Materials, and Tests

Once course objectives are in place, teachers are in position to select methods and materials directly related to the objectives. Regardless of how wonderful some materials are, if the materials do not teach toward one of the course objectives, the teacher will not use them.

Evaluation is also an important step. Tests must evaluate the objectives. If the objective calls for analysis, the test should be an essay test or be in some format which demands application of analysis skills. If the objective calls for identification or recognition, the test may be in a true-false or multiple choice format. The test design must fit the course objective. This condition demands great care in selecting a verb to state the course objectives. Otherwise, the teacher commits himself to an evaluation system which he has no time to grade or to a test which is impractical to administer. The methods and materials must teach toward the test.

Program Evaluation

Faculty usually design their own tests to evaluate individual course objectives. But there is also a need to evaluate the department's curriculum. Since goals and objectives relate to student behavior upon completion of the department course of study, the department should consider a test for all graduating students. Test questions should clearly evaluate stated goals and objectives. Only then can the department really determine whether the instructional program has produced the skills promised by the objectives. The department may choose a standardized test for this process. But it is difficult to find a standardized test to fit "local" objectives written for a specific program. Therefore, faculty may need to design their own instrument.

Sometimes, departments wish to evaluate student skills at the entry level. Such evaluations can assist in grouping and scheduling. The same test could be given at the exit time to determine degree of progress as well as to evaluate the program. The exit test is critical to identify weaknesses in the instructional program and to recommend remedial changes.

The Management Process

When anyone wants to offer a new course or change an existing course, department faculty should evaluate the proposal according to institutional goals and department objectives. If the course does not meet the goals and objectives, faculty must reject it. If the course covers skills which should be taught, faculty consider revision of goals and objectives. The question of how the change affects course interrelationships is also important. In this process, role and scope, philosophy, goals, and objectives direct curriculum decisions and minimize personality conflict.

With a curriculum management structure in place, the department knows where it is going, what it is trying to do, what it is doing to teach the designated skills, and how all faculty and courses support one another in that effort. In curriculum management, faculty must keep one important idea in mind: No curriculum will ever be perfect. There is constant need for periodic evaluation of philosophy, goals, objectives, courses and their instructors. Results from exit tests demand frequent adjustment. Finally curriculum should be reviewed at least every five years.

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Managing Curriculum Change

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General Principles For Introducing Innovation In Educational Institutions

It is useful to think of institutions as a set of systems, each system complex in itself and related in a complex way with other systems. Firstly, there is a system concerned with the theories held by individuals, the approaches they adopt and their views of learning and teaching. Secondly, there is the system of behaviors that teachers, learners, administrators and educational planners engage in. Next, there is the system of lesson and curricula organization. Finally, there is the system of learners' culturally relative learning styles and the learning strategies they adopt.

When introducing innovation, therefore, it is important to know the nature of the organization in terms of the "looseness" or the "tightness" of the connections between the institutional systems. In a loosely connected system, teachers use a variety of approaches, curricula and lessons are diverse and learners have variable opportunities to pursue their own learning styles and strategies. In a tightly coupled system there is an explicit connection between a particular approach to learning and teaching, the behaviors of the teachers and learners, the curricula designed, and the cognitive activity of the learners and their learning strategy.

Talking about Dutch secondary school systems, de Caluwe (1986) asserted:

> In loosely coupled systems innovations are easy to introduce but are restricted to one or two persons and disappear rapidly; in tightly coupled systems innovations take a long time to introduce and are often not effective unless ownership is diffused.

For example, two teachers can implement changes in their classrooms fairly easily and quickly--but to influence the whole system is more difficult. Similarly, particular learners may decide to approach a problem in a certain way but the system as a whole will not necessarily be affected

With tightly coupled systems, however, innovations take longer and are more difficult to introduce since all proponents of the different systems have to participate in discussions and

workshops, to be convinced of the need for innovation and the direction the innovation is taking. Curricula have to be formally laid out, as do assessment systems. This takes time but if one can diffuse the ownership of the innovation in a tightly coupled system, the innovation is more likely to be accepted. It will have "sustainability."

Metaphors Of Curriculum Change

There is opposition between the view that management of curriculum change is a set of phases, levels, and structures and the more practical view that change is more metamorphic, growing organically. Contrary to the view that one works steadily, through different taxonomic levels, it is often the case that several stages in introducing innovation overlap, making it difficult to identify particular "points" reached in the renewal process. The development and implementation of innovation occur in a comparatively unstructured, organic way and it is perhaps therefore incorrect to think of one single point having been reached; it is more helpful to think of a number of different points having been reached in a number of overlapping phases.

The Institutional Context

This study concerns a program of innovation effected at Kanda Institute of Foreign Languages (KIFL), Tokyo. Students follow core courses in general and occupational English, Japanese business protocol, and computer skills. They obtain certificated credits by following courses in one or more electives: the hotel or tourism industries, general business, foreign languages, and translation/interpretation. There are approximately 110 Japanese and 80 expatriate faculty members. Expatriate faculty are mainly American but there are also teachers from thirteen other nationalities. Administrators are predominantly Japanese. The context is thus multicultural, bringing both benefits and potential tensions.

The Collaborative Curriculum Innovation Model Adopted

A consultancy team was engaged "to review current curriculum principles, goals and practices, human and material resources in the institution . . ." They then had to "propose new directions for curriculum renewal in the light of the institution's vision statement, the review of the existing situation and the findings of the different research teams set up during the consultancy" (Consultancy Brief, 1992). Finally the team had to develop and implement action plans.

In addition to consultants, teachers and administrators were included from the outset. It was felt that any innovation imposed from above or outside without their cooperation was unlikely to succeed. Accordingly, all project phases involved research teams drawn from faculty and administration volunteers, each with a statement of purpose and set of goals and outcomes. It was hoped that individual knowledge and experience could be combined with an increasing awareness of current research to create a strong foundation for the curriculum innovation. Two committees were established, one to facilitate liaison between institution departments, and the other to try to ensure that the voices of different faculty constituencies were heard.

Teams were guided by consultants through regular meetings, periodic visits and through editorial comments on written outcomes. The intention was that all decision making, whether at project or institutional management level, would be informed by recommendations of research teams.

There were three main stages in the KIFL renewal project:

- planning, where the project was responsible for work produced;
- a transition stage, where responsibility for system refinement was intended to be shared between project and program administrators;
- an implementation stage with responsibility for successful delivery of the renewed curriculum resting solely with program administrators.

The curriculum planning stage itself had three overlapping phases. In the initial phase, teams researched student needs and aspirations, using various data sources: students, faculty members, employers, high schools. This information was used in the formulation of curriculum aims and goals, and exit level objectives. In the second phase, teams gathered and collated information on current research and practice in the teaching and learning of vocabulary, grammar, reading, listening, speaking, and writing, and in the areas of learner styles and strategies, learning content, discourse, and pragmatics. Each group was charged with producing an annotated bibliography, a typology of teaching and learning task-types, and a professional development package for use within the institution.

Finally, this large amount of information and data was used by other faculty teams. Materials developers, for example, drew upon the data to

produce syllabus specifications, course and unit plans, and learning tasks. The learner assessment team designed and piloted a system for assessing student performance against exit level objectives, as well as providing professional development support. The resources group looked at the curriculum aim of equipping learners with the strategies required to function independently and planned the development of a multi-media independent learning center. Professional development was seen as crucial to the success of the renewal and a research group examined ways of enhancing the provision of formal and non-formal teacher development, so that faculty could become aware of curriculum aims, goals, objectives and various approaches to achieving these in the classroom. Evaluating the whole curriculum renewal process as well as specific elements such as courses and materials was considered important, and from the outset one team developed program evaluation instruments and procedures.

Tensions in the Curriculum Renewal Process

No matter how well planned the renewal process, in-depth change creates great tensions arising from the organization's collective redefinition process. Collaborative curriculum renewal upsets business as usual. Calling for a collective response can threaten individuals' comfortable routines and territorial privileges. Tensions are bound to surface.

This section provides illustrative examples from the Kanda project of three of these sources of tension:

- communication
- time frames
- transition structure

Communication

Introducing innovation makes communication and clarification imperative so that all participants have shared concepts of the curriculum and of their roles in the process. This can be done formally and informally through presentations, discussions, workshops, reports and proposals, bulletins, and networking. However, it is difficult to avoid miscommunication, particularly in a multicultural environment. The nuances of key terms, in particular, can distort meaning and result in serious misconceptions. These can raise false expectations, creating tensions which disrupt the process.

In the KIFL project, the term "bottom-up" process of renewal was used to signal that the innovation would incorporate learner input and recommendations arising from teacher experience and research. It would not be imposed from above, faculty playing a central role through research and discussion, the writing of materials, and evaluative feedback.

Unfortunately, "bottom-up" was interpreted by some to mean that system-wide decisions would be made by teachers rather than administrators or curriculum planners. "This means we can change everything," was an early teacher comment. The term "bottom-up" was assumed to mean that the research teams' work could also include discussion of working conditions. Already existing frustrations between faculty and management deepened and the term became a point of contention, undermining faculty trust and support so crucial to a participatory process and to the acceptance of the innovation.

It is therefore imperative in such innovation for management to be alert to the effects of word-imagery and to possible misinterpretations. Terms should be explained precisely and, if misconstrued, clarified or replaced with clearer metaphors.

Time Frames

The need to allow adequate time for curriculum renewal in a tightly coupled system is not always appreciated. The alternative is an incomplete product which risks losing the support of students, teachers and administrators.

In early discussions of the KIFL project (1991-2), a minimum five-year time frame had been estimated, but for financial reasons it was later decided that the new curriculum should be implemented in three years. Throughout the process, therefore, time for research, planning, evaluation, and improvement was at a premium. What was gained in time was lost in quality which had to be rectified later.

For example, curriculum objectives, expressed in terms of learner competencies, were formulated concurrently with, rather than after, analysis of learner needs surveys. Only partial analysis of these competencies--and how to best develop them through new materials--was possible before writing began because of the need to meet deadlines for delivery to students. Neither did tight timelines allow for several editing stages or exciting page design. In addition, the three-year target resulted in the use of an assessment system which was not fully designed nor trialed, and which consequently required adjustments during implementation. The incompleteness of the system caused frustrations and was a source of dissatisfaction among teachers and administrators with the new curriculum.

There was little time for the on-the-job training required by most participants since few were knowledgable in curriculum design, editing, writing, or testing. Neither was there

enough time for the conflict resolution and consensus building so integral to team work.

Project management's response to time pressure was to aim for an "interim" curriculum to meet implementation deadlines. This would subsequently be evaluated and revised to desired standards. Although this satisfied the demand for a new curriculum within three years, the necessary compromises of quality and completeness were perceived as mismanagement, eroding confidence in the project and the curriculum among some people, and increasing the tension which always accompanies implementation of organizational change.

The opposition between adequate time frames and the desire to save money and obtain early publicity value has to be resolved in many projects, but decision makers must know that lowering standards in the short term can lose faculty satisfaction and support. The faults have eventually to be rectified, but not before damage has been done.

Transition Structure

The transition from design to implementation of a new curriculum is a distinct, critical stage needing to be carefully managed.

In the KIFL project, collaboration between curriculum planners and implementers did not continue into the transition stage. Design and implementation seemed to be viewed by administrators as two separate phases with no interface, and therefore no need for a formal structure to ensure continuing collaboration or effective management of the transition. Exchange of crucial information stopped at the start-up of the new curriculum when interdepartmental dialog was most needed. After curriculum designers had provided orientation for teachers, they could not clarify teachers' questions about, for example, course design, appropriate pathways through the materials for developing learner strategies, the nature and use of task chains, or pedagogical issues arising from an integrated skills approach. Implementers were naturally not always sufficiently familiar with the course to be able to answer such queries. In other words, curriculum planners could not provide continuing professional development support--so critical during the start-up phase.

The transition stage was a politically sensitive and administratively unstable moment when a new organizational structure, new management positions and responsibilities, and new working relationships were all being tested. Moreover, teachers were trying to comprehend and deliver the new curriculum effectively but also being seduced by the familiar materials, practices, and objectives of the former curriculum. Tensions arising from inter-departmental politics or interpersonal relationships can affect the important tasks of clarifying concepts or providing practical methodological suggestions to the key implementers--classroom teachers.

The transition phase thus requires a formal facilitating structure--a working group of curriculum designers and implementers to ensure that teachers understand the curriculum and to jointly produce solutions to procedural and administrative problems. Examples of transition issues in the KIFL project which needed to be but were not focused on were (1) an understanding of the learning objectives and various options available for attaining them, (2) encouragement and understanding of co-teaching and team support, (3) an understanding of the relationship between competency assessment and learner responsibility.

Finally, it is important that curriculum evaluation and modification are discussed by both designers and administrators because isolated adjustments made to the system, by whatever "side," can affect the integrity of design and planned outcomes in terms of improvements in learner and teacher performance.

Conclusion

Introducing innovation in a tightly coupled system into an educational institution is a lengthy, complex process. As illustrated by this study of the KIFL project, this process rarely follows a sequence of clearly defined stages. This may be because of the need to accommodate financially imposed timeframes or may be due to the complexity of the process itself, as well as to the fact that we do not necessarily all think or work in logical sequence. Tensions may occur at all moments in the process and while preemptive action can be taken, curriculum planners and implementers must be aware of the need to deal with problems caused by such tensions. Perhaps the most surprising finding of the Kanda project study is that what was intended to be a collaborative design, using input from the "bottom," was in the end influenced by management-labor tensions that had a serious effect upon the acceptance of the renewal.

It would be sad, however, if some aspects of the KIFL experience discouraged further attempts at bottom-up curriculum innovation processes. The enormous activity by over two-thirds of the faculty during the project's lifetime, together with highly professional outputs in terms of reports, seminars, conference presentations, new courses and learning and teaching materials, supplementary materials, self-access worksheets, etc., are all indicative of the extremely valuable professional development aspect of

such a renewal exercise.

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Designing and Teaching a Content-based Course

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Content-based teaching has been shown to be a viable method of teaching both content and language. Defined by Brinton, Snow, and Wesche (1989, p. 2), content-based teaching is "the concurrent teaching of academic subject matter and second language skills." The target language is the medium for communicating information about the content subject. The content offers the context for learning language skills.

Krashen (1984) established the importance of context by suggesting that language learners understand material more efficiently when it is presented in a comprehensible context, rather than in fragmented examples of sentences and words lacking connections. Swain (1985) argued that learners develop communicative competence when they acquire meaningful use of the target language.

Other researchers have documented their experience supporting content-based teaching in an English as a second language (ESL) setting (Dubin & Olshtain, 1986; Crandall, 1987; Rosser, 1995). In Japan increasing numbers of universities are changing their curriculum to include English as a foreign language (EFL) content courses (Kizziar, 1987; Halvorsen & Kobayashi, 1990; Biegel, 1991; Hagen, 1991). Kiji and Kiji (1993), reported that students in an EFL content-based anthropology course recalled a larger number of vocabulary items than those in only regular EFL courses. The authors agree with Mohan (1986, p. 3) who states, "there is no reason for the language classroom to be restricted to language teaching for its own sake."

Brinton, et al. (1989), define three models of content-based instruction— theme based, sheltered, and adjunct. The authors use a modified version of the sheltered model in teaching history to second year English majors at Kokugakuin Junior College and Hokusei Gakuen Women's Junior College. A sheltered

content course consists of a segregated group of language learners, often all speaking the same first language. The content area teacher is fluent in the target language. The teacher adjusts the content and language learning tasks to learners needs and abilities.

This paper will discuss five areas of concern in designing and teaching a sheltered content-based EFL curriculum: identification of stakeholders; the balance of content and language objectives with students' abilities; use of the students' first language; resources available in an EFL setting; and evaluation.

Stakeholders

Stakeholders are the individuals or groups that have an interest in or influence on how a class is taught. Teachers have to make practical decisions in designing a content-based curriculum which have to do with restrictions or challenges from the community, school, parents or students (Stern, 1992).

National, regional and local laws and expectations may be important to consider in curriculum design. At a school level, teachers may have no input into the type of class (theme-based, sheltered or adjunct); the content that must be taught; class size; or whether the class is required or elective. Likewise, parents may also have expectations of the curriculum in terms of test results in national examinations or vocational training.

Students are also stakeholders. What physical, emotional, and cognitive abilities or challenges do students bring to the class? What past language and content area training have students had? Why do they participate in the class? How does the class fit into their schedule or relate to other meaningful parts of their lives?

The teacher is also a stakeholder. Who is the teacher and what are the teacher's goals for the class? We all bring our dreams, hopes, ideas, biases, strengths, and weaknesses into the classroom. It can be useful to examine these items in deciding which can help develop a strong curriculum.

At Halvorsen's school, history had been taught in Japanese and school authorities had to be convinced that students could learn the content in English. Other English department personnel reviewed the class before it was given a permanent place in the curriculum. In Gettings' school, history was one of the elective core liberal arts requirements. The English department required readings to be the equivalent of North American junior college texts. It also had a long term commitment to developing computer-aided instruction. In setting up the design of the content-based curriculum the teachers at each junior college had to be sensitive to the school and the English department as stakeholders.

Balance of Content and Language Objectives

In a content-based curriculum teachers have to decide on the balance of language and content objectives. What blend of the four language skills will be stressed? How much content information can the students learn in the target language in a given amount of time? What blend of content information and skills will students be taught? Some skills fall neatly into either the language or content areas but some overlap.

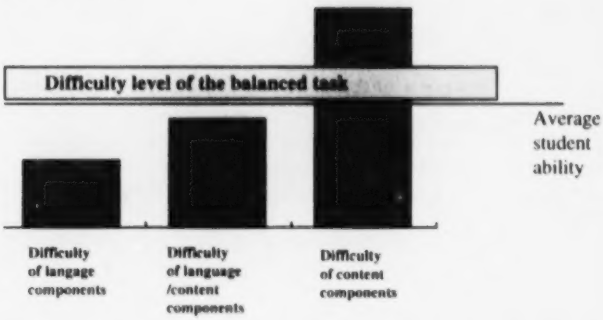
Krahnke (1987) and Skehan (1994) warn about possible fossilization in learners' language use if they are able to successfully learn content without paying close attention to lexico-grammatical features. Willis (1995) believes there should be specific language focused exercises to better exploit the materials selected. Learner support, such as pre-teaching vocabulary, is essential. The nature of the sheltered model is to adjust content and language tasks to the content and language levels of learners in order to design learning tasks that foster a high degree of student success. A balanced task challenges students but is not so difficult as to overburden them or result in low rates of student success.

In Figure 1 the high level of difficulty of the content components of the task is balanced by reducing the difficulty of the language and language/content components. The adjusted difficulty level of the balanced task, which may also include pre-task learner support, is set just above students present ability, with attention to the students' I+1 (Krashen, 1982) or zone of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1962).

In both authors' classes students must use vocabulary that has been pre-taught, in reading or map assignments or lectures, in order to complete writing assignments or research projects. These activities provide not only repetition, but also context for individual words, two valuable aids in decoding meaning and in retaining lexical items (Carter, 1987).

In lectures where there are difficult content components, the authors take a flexible approach. The difficulty of the language and the length of the lecture are adjusted to make sure the message is being received (Snow, 1991). The lectures, in basic English spoken at a slightly reduced speed, are 20 minutes or less. Repetition and paraphrase are "effective and valuable tools" (Kizziar, 1987, p.33) which the authors frequently utilize. In Halvorsen's class, prior to each lecture,

Figure One


Difficulty level of the balanced task
Average student ability
Difficulty of langage components
Difficulty of language /content components
Difficulty of content components

students work through study guide questions for the material to be covered in the lecture. The lecture covers the answers to the questions and adds a little depth to the topic of the unit.

In writing assignments, peer editing is used in addition to teacher editing. This intensifies the support offered the student and adds a lexico-grammatical focus to the task The fact that the teacher is not the only reader reinforces that audience considerations are important and makes the task more communicative (Zamel, 1987).

Using the Students' First Language:

Teaching EFL in a situation where almost all of the students share the same first language, and where first language content resources outnumber second, offers unique opportunities in teaching the content of the content-based curriculum.

The teacher can use students' previously learned schemata from, for example, classes students have taken in earlier grades in the standardized national school system, to ease them into content-based language learning. The teacher can also quickly provide students with schemata before the lesson by giving them first language background materials (Kitao, 1992).

While recognizing the primacy of the target language as the teaching language of the content class, it need not be the only language. Decisions to use other languages, the target language and first language abilities of the teacher, the content area training of the teacher, and the "authenticity" of materials should all be judged by their usefulness in meeting the objectives of the curriculum. In making curriculum decisions we hope to use every resource available in order to be faithful to the goal of fostering a high degree of student success in the language and content iearning tasks that we create.

Halvorsen has a question and answer time following each of his lectures so students have the opportunity to clarify anything that they did not understand or to ask a question related to the lecture. As Japanese students seldom volunteer an answer or question, he allows students to use Japanese during this period to help them feel more comfortable when requesting clarification. However, he will usually answer the questions using English. Both Halvorsen and Gettings accept the use of Japanese at times during their small group discussions, and both authors use newspapers, books, and magazines in Japanese for background reading materials. In all cases the students' first language is used to achieve an objective of the content-based task.

Resources

There are many first and target language resources available to content course teachers in a foreign language situation. The authors have used items supplied by various international, national and private agencies, such as radio program transcripts, speech transcripts, newspaper and magazine articles, posters, travel brochures, maps, videos, original family photos, cookbooks, and a myriad of other "non-language teaching" sources. The teacher may need to look beyond the traditional text book to find suitable items. Embassies and consulates, tourist and travel agencies, school and local libraries, individuals in the students' communities, foreign textbooks, television, and the Internet, are just some of the places to explore for useful classroom resources.

Halvorsen has each student write to a tourist agency from one of the fifty U.S. states, Washington, D.C., or a major city. After the information is received, students plan a five-day vacation to the destination of their choice. The letter writing also serves as a language task.

Evaluation

Evaluation measures both student and teacher success. When evaluating students, the teacher must consider both content and language levels in a content-based class. Many methods used to test content learning in sheltered courses require students to have intermediate to advanced language skills. The teacher must consider students' language skills in designing evaluation tasks, just as in designing learning tasks for students.

Both authors base student evaluation on a variety of tasks, in order to assure "that students will not be unfairly disadvantaged by one or two test formats" (Brinton, et al., 1989, p. 187). Halvorsen uses weekly quizzes, a final comprehension test, projects, reports, and map assignments. Quizzes are peer graded so that students are able to see immediately where they made mistakes. Gettings uses lecture notes/summaries, reading assignments and quizzes, library research assignments, and projects that include art, poster presentations, or formal research papers. Computerized reading comprehension quizzes are also used to give the student immediate feedback (Gettings, 1994). By including a variety of evaluation tasks, the authors hope to obtain the best overall performance from each student.

Evaluations of the curriculum by students can indicate whether the students' needs and expectations as stakeholders were met. Student performance on tests are also an indication of the teacher's success in designing learning tasks. Average student performance on quizzes and tests fell in to the 65-75% range (very acceptable in the Japanese system) at both schools. An overwhelming majority of students at Hokusei Gakuen responded that their listening and writing skills had improved more because of the new content-based curriculum than in regular EFL classes. However, they criticized history, in particular, for the amount and difficulty of the work required outside of class. The work was problematic because time was needed for other classes and, because of the worsening Japanese economic situation, for searching for after-graduation employment. The author had not met students needs as stakeholders on this point. He adjusted the curriculum for the following year to give students freer choice in the amount of outside of class work that they completed. The authors have found student feedback to be important for an informed improvement of the balance between content, language, and students' needs in their content-based classes.

Conclusion

This paper has examined five areas of concern in developing and teaching a sheltered content-based course: identification of the stakeholders; the balance of content and language objectives with student abilities; use of the students' first language; resources available in an EFL setting; and evaluation. Students are important stakeholders in the curriculum design process as are the community, the school and the teacher. Teachers need to adjust their language and content tasks carefully to students' language and content levels. Evaluation and student feedback should lead to the kind of adjustment of the curriculum that results in a high rate of student success in both language and content areas. The authors have found the content-based method to be an effective way of teaching and encourage other teachers to incorporate content-based education into their language curricula.

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Global Education: Curriculum and Evaluation

Kip A. Cates, Moderator
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Hannam University

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Chulalongkorn University

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This colloquium, sponsored by JALT's Global Issues in Language Education National Special Interest Group, addressed the conference theme of curriculum and evaluation as it relates to global education and the teaching of global issues in language classes and programs. Kip Cates, coordinator of the Global Issues National Special Interest Group (N-SIG), began the session by posing the questions: How can teachers design language courses which promote international understanding and knowledge about world problems? How can students be tested for both language proficiency and global awareness? He then introduced the colloquium panelists, an international panel of global language educators from Japan, Korea, Thailand and Canada.

Global Education in Korea

Carl Dusthimer from Hannam University, Korea kicked off the colloquium with an overview of the present status of global education in English language teaching in Korea. He first noted that global education and the teaching of global issues in language classes were still new ideas in Korea. He discussed the growing interest in "segyehwa" (internationalization) in Korea called for by such groups as the Presidential Commission on the 21st Century (1995, p.93),

then described the growing demand for educational reform in Korean schools and the call for more emphasis on communicative foreign language skills to better enable Korea to participate in the global community.

Dusthimer then briefly introduced the Korea TESOL organization, a national organization of English language teachers in Korea, and described the formation in early 1995 of a new Global Issues Special Interest Group (SIG) within the organization. This group, like JALT's Global Issues in Language Education N-SIG, aims to increase awareness of global problems such as human rights, the environment, world hunger, and women's issues through a content-based global education approach to language teaching. As the group's first official announcement notes, "language educators are in a unique position to increase students' awareness of global problems. The educational community has a responsibility to prepare and encourage our students to take the necessary steps to preserve our planet for their children" (Global issues, 1995, p.97).

He then described some of the activities of the new SIG, including its collaboration with environmental groups in Korea. This resulted in a "Kite Fly for the Environment" event in Seoul sponsored by the Global Issues SIG which aimed at promoting environmental awareness among Korean language teachers and students.

Dusthimer finished by noting that Korea is still in the beginning stages of implementing global education as an approach to language teaching. He emphasized that Korean language teachers are just beginning to experiment with global issues as language teaching content and predicted some exciting initiatives in the next few years as Korean language teachers gained more experience in this area.

Global Studies at Canadian International College

The second speaker, Heather Jones, introduced the unique global education curriculum of Canadian International College (CIC), a private, academic, Japanese ESL college located in British Columbia, Canada. CIC is committed to nurturing a global perspective among its Japanese students through a learning environment designed to promote independence of spirit, understanding of other peoples and cultures, and a sense of world community. The college was established in 1988 with the mission statement, "to educate students to become globalists, as well as culturally informed citizens of their home country." Japanese students at CIC thus learn both to establish their own identity as Japanese citizens and to participate in the global community.

CIC offers both a two year International Studies Certificate and a four year International Relations program. The first year of both programs focuses on English language development and cultural understanding including content courses on topics such as world resources and human geography. Core courses in the two year program include Culture and Current Issues as well as a major students choose from areas such as Environmental Studies, Business Management, and Bilingual Studies. Core courses for the four year program comprise Social Issues, Global Studies (explained in more detail below), and a choice of major in areas such as Business, Multicultural Studies, and Bilingual Interpreting. A unique component of both programs is the Experiential Studies. This involves students in community service doing volunteer work with non-profit global issue groups and a short-term stay in Mexico where students experience a foreign culture as they study Third World issues faced by developing countries. The curriculum writing guidelines at CIC are focused around the "knowledge framework" developed by Mohan (1986), an organizing tool that allows curriculum developers to systematically link content, academic language and thinking skills. The language component focuses on skill areas, genres, grammatical functions, discourse patterns and language strategies.

The Global Studies curriculum leads students to develop and examine their own global perspective. In Global Studies Year 2, students learn about the economic, political, social and ecological background to present global conditions. In particular, they study how countries and people are linked through global events while analyzing current issues and the power of the media. Language skills developed during this year include the design and production of research papers and small group discussion and debating skills. In Year 3, students examine topics such as human rights and world hunger, and prepare for their international experience in Mexico through studies of Mexican society and development issues. Integrated language tasks in this year combine oral presentation skills with academic writing skills such as testing hypotheses and expressing cause and effect. In Year 4, students investigate and summarize causes and solutions to the international debt crisis, debate Japan's foreign aid policy and refine their skills in summarizing, oral presentations and leading discussions about current events.

Jones explained how designing CIC's global

education-oriented curriculum has been an intensive process in which faculty members have had to interpret the goals of CIC's mission statement and combine these with theories of language and content to come up with a comprehensive, integrated student-centred program emphasizing topics of global importance approached through a study of current issues. She concluded her talk by inviting participants to visit Canadian International College to see this unique global education ESL program in action.

Global Issues in the Thai ELT Classroom

The third panelist to speak was Anchalee Chayanuvat of Chulalongkorn University in Bangkok, Thailand. In her talk, entitled *Bringing Reality into the ELT Classroom*, Chayanuvat argued that we cannot isolate the ELT classroom from the outside world. World problems are too urgent to ignore, students need to understand the local and global problems we face and this understanding can be effectively promoted in the foreign language classroom. She explained how global issue topics are dealt with in a set of university EFL coursebooks developed by her and her colleagues at the Chulalongkorn University Language Institute (CULI) in Bangkok.

Chayanuvat began her talk by describing the English teaching situation at her university and the background to her global education materials writing project. At Chulalongkorn University, all students do at least 6 credits of compulsory English. In the EFL program, English is taught through a functional approach which emphasizes communication and the development of students' ability to express themselves, explain their ideas, and exchange views in English.

In 1993, a team of materials writers came together to see how this functional approach could be applied to an English curriculum built around content emphasizing social and global issues. The team's work rested on several key beliefs:

- that, although global issues often sound overly serious to students, they can be explored effectively and in an interesting and empowering way in a foreign language.
- that global issues are critical problems facing students, their communities and the world that can't be ignored and that educators have a duty to address in the classroom.
- that students' global awareness and language skills can be built up through teaching which draws on their world knowledge while practicing English functions such as predicting, summarizing and expressing cause and effect.

Their efforts resulted in a 2-volume thematic textbook series entitled *Foundation English* (Chayanuvat et al, 1993). This comprised units on "Advice" (touching on the topic of AIDS), "Tomorrow's World" (involving topics such as water conservation in Thailand), "Man - the Planet's Worst Enemy" (focusing on topics such as destruction of forests and coral reefs), "Looking at Both Sides" (where students examine the pros and cons of TV and tourism), and "Advertising: Persuasion or Manipulation" (including public service advertisements dealing with the environment and human rights).

Student language tasks devised by the textbook writing team include having students:

- write a letter of advice to a classmate suffering from AIDS.
- practice expressions of probability to predict the future ("If we cut down the forests, ... might/probably/will happen.").
- write cause and effect sentences from two word prompts ("acid rain - dying trees", "untreated sewage - water pollution").
- agree or disagree with statements such as "The Bengal tiger is a fierce animal so it doesn't need to be protected."
- summarize an article about famine in Somalia in a few sentences.
- discuss environmental problems and solutions.

In addition to outlining the design and rationale behind the various textbook units, Chayanuvat described students' positive reactions to the text and showed examples of students' written work. She also mentioned a follow-up curriculum design project called EAP Law in which Chulalongkorn University law students study academic and legal English through a syllabus focusing on global issue topics such as child labor, women's rights, sexual slavery, environmental problems, and consumer rights.

Evaluating Global Education Programs

The final speaker on the panel was Michael Higgins of Yamaguchi University, Japan, who addressed the topic of global education program evaluation. He began his talk by making a distinction between three kinds of evaluation: program evaluation, materials evaluation, and

teaching/learning evaluation.

Program evaluation he defined as an evaluation of the ability of the program to meet the objectives of the curriculum designers as well as the needs of both society and the students. Materials evaluation he defined as evaluation of the materials used in a specific course as to how well they achieve the teacher's instructional objectives. Teaching-learning evaluations he defined as measurements of how well students accomplish the teacher's behavioral objectives which specify how, to what extent and under what conditions students will display to the teacher their achievement of the instructional objectives.

He then introduced a model of formal program evaluation applicable to global education, language teaching and other educational programs consisting of four separate stages:

1. the establishment of a program evaluation plan (deciding on program intent, limits, parameters, responsibilities, time lines, etc.).
2. the setting of the direction of courses (specifying instructional objectives, behavioral objectives and materials selection criteria).
3. process evaluations (collecting data for program evaluation in the form of student assignments, tests, participant surveys, etc.).
4. product evaluation (student/teacher/program assessments).

Higgins then went on to discuss materials evaluation, including the need to check global education and language teaching materials (whether print, audio or video) for informational accuracy and evidence of bias. He then introduced a format for categorizing materials according to criteria such as whether they display evidence of stereotyping, ethnocentrism, discrimination or bias based on gender, race or age.

He finished his talk with a discussion of the importance of setting specific objectives and program goals for global education language teaching courses and recommended that global language teachers study key publications on evaluation such as the recent issue on testing and evaluation in the JALT Applied Materials series (Brown & Yamashita, 1995). He noted finally that objectives and goals are like a good road map - if you have one, you can easily check how far you've progressed towards your final destination. Without carefully thought out objectives and concrete plans for achieving these, however, no progress is possible. As someone once said, "if you don't care where you are, then you're not lost."

Conclusion

It is hoped that this colloquium helped participants understand basic principles of global education curriculum design and evaluation. The panelists' description of their work showed the kind of innovative programs possible which combine global issues and language learning. The participation of panelists from Korea, Thailand, and Canada show also that a global education approach to language teaching is not solely being tried in Japan but is an international phenomenon promoted by professional language teachers world-wide who are striving to bring an international perspective to their classes as they attempt to teach for a better world.

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Language Textbooks: Help or Hindrance?

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A major challenge for language teachers is to provide learning experiences which meet individual student needs. Materials can be a key contributor to classroom interaction and teachers need, therefore, to choose carefully to ensure that their contribution is positive and enhances language development. This paper investigates attitudes to teaching materials and explores two opposing points of view. The first argues that commercial materials deskill teachers and rob them of their capacity to respond professionally to their students. The second suggests teaching materials can be a useful form of professional development for teachers and can foster autonomous learning strategies in students. This second perspective and the proliferation of teaching materials suggest the issue is not so much whether or not teachers should use commercially prepared materials but rather what form these should take and how they should be used to ensure positive outcomes. The second half of the paper explores 6 key assumptions which the author feels should underpin materials if these are to enhance the learning environment in the language classroom.

Preplanned Teaching Materials: A Help or a Hindrance?

The role of textbooks is a contentious issue for many teachers and researchers concerned with learner-centred programs. Opponents to their use claim that they are for poor, unimaginative teachers, and reinforce teacher-driven instruction (TESL-L internet discussion, 1994 - see Appendix). They also "reduce the teacher's role to one of managing or overseeing preplanned events" (Littlejohn, cited in Hutchinson and Torres, 1994, p. 316), which cannot be responsive to learner needs. Proponents, on the other hand, argue that appropriate materials allow for individualisation by saving teacher time and effort. They also help structure the learning process and give students greater control over their learning.

There appears to be very little research, however, on the exact role of textbooks in the language classroom. The negative position is based on either a deficiency or difference view (Allwright, 1981), both of which challenge the teacher's professionalism. From the deficiency perspective, published materials are needed to make up for teacher shortcomings and to ensure the syllabus is covered using well thought-out exercises. Underlying this view is the assumption that 'good' teachers always know what materials to use and have access to or can create these. They thus neither want nor need published materials.

The difference view is less derogatory with regard to teachers but nevertheless argues that material design is a specialist skill which teachers cannot be expected to have. This view emerged in the TESL-L debate (see Appendix) with several participants suggesting that textbook materials are better than teachers can produce consistently in the time available to them.

Both views assume that teachers will slavishly follow the textbook and let it control classroom interaction, thus failing to respond to learner feedback or challenge received ideas. One of the few studies (Stodolsky, 1989, p. 176), which has actually looked at teacher use of textbooks suggests such a conclusion may not be justified as "teachers are very autonomous in their textbook use" and only a minority actually follow a text in a page-by-page manner.

The role of preplanned materials can be more positive. Appropriate textbooks may, for example, actually help teachers come to terms with new content and ways of tackling this with different learners thus providing "a helpful scaffold for learning to think pedagogically" (Loewenberg Ball & Feiman-Nemser, 1988, p. 421). Indeed textbooks which provide theoretically explicit rationales for the activities proposed can become an essential source of information and support and a medium of on-going professional development for experienced as well as novice teachers (Donoghue, 1992).

Textbooks are also potential agents of change (Hutchinson and Torres, 1994). More research is needed to determine the extent to which they actually change practice or are simply adapted to the status quo. Stodolsky's study (1989) indicates that innovative curriculum packages produce stricter adherence to the suggested content and procedures despite frequent teacher adaptations. Nevertheless, the textbook writer's aims may be overridden by the teacher's implementation skills (Jarvis, 1987) or reading of the text (Apple, 1992).

A final role for textbooks is to serve as a structuring tool. Communicative language classes are social events and so inherently unpredictable and potentially threatening to all participants (Reid, 1994). This is particularly so in periods of change (Luxon, 1994) such as those experienced by language learners or teachers implementing new programs or working with unfamiliar learner groups. One strategy for dealing with this uncertainty is "social routinisation" (the process by which classroom interaction becomes increasingly stereotyped to reduce unpredictability and, thereby, stress). A textbook, from this perspective, does not necessarily drive the teaching process but it does provide structure and predictability and make the event socially tolerable to the participants. It also serves as a useful plan of what is intended, thus providing a basis for negotiation and accountability (Hutchinson and Torres, 1994)

Materials, in other words, do not necessarily deskill teachers. Indeed, as the above discussion suggests, they can be a useful planning and development tool. The issue therefore is not their use but the form they should take to ensure that their contribution to the learning process is positive.

Effective Teaching Materials

Materials obviously reflect the writers' views of language and learning and if they are to scaffold learning, these underlying principles need to be explicit and an object of discussion by both students and teachers. The remainder of this paper looks at the assumptions about language and learning which the author feels reflect our present understanding of the language learning process and should guide materials development.

Language is Functional and Must be Contextualised

To be meaningful, language must be situated in its context of use. Without knowledge of the sociocultural context, it is impossible to understand how language is being used in a given interaction. Contextualised language is also culturally and linguistically rich and can be adapted for use with students of different levels of proficiency. In addition, familiarity with the context allows students to draw on their background knowledge and so assists meaning processing.

One way to build a shared context for learners and their teachers is to use video drama (e.g. Clemens and Crawford, 1995). Visuals provide information about the physical context of the interaction and allow exploration of the nonverbal and sociocultural aspects of language as well as the purely verbal. They also extend the reach of the course beyond the classroom

Language Development Requires Learner Engagement in Purposeful Use of Language

Experiential strategies (Stern, 1992) suggest the focus of input and output materials should be on real texts, language in use, rather than on "building blocks" to be used at some later date. Contextualisation of speaking and writing tasks means appropriate sociocultural choices can be made but also requires the active participation of the learner's whole personality. Indeed, new knowledge is only integrated into the existing language system when the language is used spontaneously and purposefully to express the speaker's/writer's own intent. Such real communication, however, implies the engagement of genuine interest and requires going beyond simply practising use.

The Language Used Should be "Authentic"

An outcome of our understanding that language is a social practice has been an increased call for the use of culturally-rich "authentic" materials rather than the contrived, artificial language often found in traditional textbooks (Grant, 1987; MacWilliam, 1990). The problem with using authentic materials - in Nunan's (1989, p. 54) sense of 'any material which has not

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been specifically produced for the purpose of language teaching' - is that it is very difficult to find such materials which support the learning process by remaining within manageable fields and recycling the language used. It is also difficult for teachers to obtain a sufficient range of audiovisual materials of an appropriate quality and length. Quality, however, may have an important impact on learner motivation (Hargreaves, 1994).

Materials Need to Present a Range of Genres (both written and spoken)

The need to engage learners in purposeful language use applies to written as well as spoken interaction and, indeed, reading materials can provide the basis for oral work just as oral work may lead to a written response. Materials need, therefore, to be integrated and provide examples which can be used to develop familiarity with the structure of different text types and provide a scaffold to assist with the learners' subsequent attempts to produce their own texts.

The emphasis given to written and spoken genres will reflect the purposes of the program and the options available to teachers and learners. Advances in technology, however, mean that even isolated learners have access to both written and audiovisual materials and so potentially the need for a broad range of written and spoken genres.

Effective Teaching Materials Foster Learner Autonomy

Given the context-dependent nature of language, no language course can predict all the language needs of learners and must seek, therefore, to prepare them to deal independently with the language they encounter in new situations. Providing independent access to sociocultural, generic and linguistic information also gives students more control over their learning. Similarly materials can contribute to an awareness of different learning strategies, thus potentially expanding the learners' repertoire both within and beyond the classroom. Greater self-direction can likewise be encouraged through the inclusion of self-assessment tasks.

Materials Need to be Flexible Enough to Cater for Individual and Contextual Differences

While language is a social practice, learning is largely an individual process as learners seek to integrate newly perceived information into their existing language system. It is essential for teachers to recognise the different backgrounds, experiences and learning styles that learners bring to the language classroom and the impact these have on what aspects of the input are likely to become intake.

At the same time, diversity of response provides a rich source of communicative potential as learners and teachers share their reactions and explore cultural differences. This presupposes that the teacher is prepared to adopt an interpretative rather than a transmissive methodology (Wright, 1987) and adapt the materials to the teaching context. Without opportunities to interact actively with each other, the teacher and the language, students will not be able to confront their hypotheses about how the system is used to convey meaning and then check these against the understanding of others. It is this kind of open interaction which potentially triggers interlanguage development (Ellis, 1991).

Conclusion

This paper has argued that preplanned teaching materials need not restrict teachers and learners but can scaffold their work and serve as agents of change. In selecting materials, of course, practitioners need to look carefully at the principles underpinning them to ensure they contribute positively to the learning environment both in terms of the input they provide and the interaction they provoke.

Teachers obviously need much more information about how they and their students can best use materials to facilitate learning. Wright (1987) suggests we teach *with* rather than *through* materials thus being free to improvise and adapt in response to learner feedback. Effective teaching materials, by providing cultural and linguistic input and a rich selection of integrated activities, are thus a professional tool which can actually assist teachers to be more responsive both by leaving them time to cater to individual needs and by expanding their teaching repertoire. Learners, too, can benefit from access to the materials used in class and the control and structure this allows. Both teachers and materials writers do, of course, walk a tightrope. The teachers' challenge is to maintain the balance between providing a coherent learning experience which scaffolds learner comprehension and production and models effective strategies without losing responsiveness to the unique situation and needs of each learner. The textbook writer's challenge is to provide materials which support, even challenge, teachers and learners and present ideas for tasks and language input without becoming prescriptive and undermining the teachers' and the learners' autonomy. It is a fine balancing.

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Appendix

TESL-L responses in favour of the use of textbooks (and number of times mentioned)

(i)	Materials better than teacher can produce consistently in time	5		
(ii)	Textbook can/should be supplemented or adapted		4	
(iii)	A basis for teacher preparation to meet individual needs		2	
(iv)	Why reinvent the wheel?		2	
(v)	A source of revision/reference for students	2		
(vi)	Students expect teachers to use a textbook		2	
(vii)	NOT using a textbook "a touch of imperialism"		1	
(viii)	Textbooks a basis for negotiation		1	
(ix)	Ss respect books more than handouts		1	
(x)	Textbook provides secure base for individual development		1	
(xi)	Copyright—rights of material writers		1	
(xii)	Cost of copying unjustifed			1
(xiii)	Textbooks (with keys) save teachers/learners time		1	
(xiv)	Texts should be available to teachers as references only	1		

TESL-L responses opposed to the use of textbooks (and number of times mentioned)

(i)	Textbooks boring difficult to understand		1	
(ii)	Textbooks don't do what is wanted of them	1		
(iii)	Cultural difference—"the Australian prejudice"		1	
(iv)	Textbooks are inadequate			1
(v)	Textbooks are inappropriate to learner-centred methodology	1		
(vi)	Textbooks are appropriate in one context not appropriate in another	1		
(vii)	Textbooks are for poor teachers, those without imagination	1		
(viii)	Textbooks reinforce teacher-driven syllabus/reduce teacher response to learner feedback		1	

N=21: Countries of origin of posters: Australia, Canada, Holland, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, South America, Switzerland, Thailand, USA.

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Materials Design for Self-directed Learning

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Introduction

This paper reports on materials design for an English language proficiency program for freshman English-language major students, at Kanda Gaigo Daigaku (Kanda University of International Studies) in Chiba. The course is an experimental project of self-directed learning, which aims to progressively devolve responsibility from teachers to students, over what to study and with whom, over the course of a year. There are many aspects to the project but here we are only concerned with materials design. The paper discusses the philosophical and educational framework, organizational principles and finally examples. In doing so, we analyze our materials at the levels of curriculum, syllabus and task.

Background to Our Project

In second language pedagogy, there has been a shift away from the search for the "ideal" method of instruction which characterized the 1970s, and a gradual abandonment of the centrality of teaching-as-performance. Instead, a recognition of the *varied* perceptions, reactions and learnings of individual learners within classes, has received more attention. Nunan has summarized this more recent understanding of the *individually-differentiated* nature of learning when he examines the frequent mismatch between teaching and learning outcomes (Nunan, 1995). Such a mismatch often occurs because learners have different agendas and focal points of interest from the teacher, and also from other learners. Unavoidably therefore, what is being taught may not be engaging learning, in cognitive and affective terms, at all. Seen in this light, the assumption that teachers can motivate students by selecting and presenting "interesting" topics is rather naive.

Curricula which have been devised in collaboration with learners, in terms of content, have been described before, for example Parkinson and O' Sullivan (1990), but we argue that these do not go far enough. Nunan has expanded his concept of "learner centredness" to include "autonomous learning" as the ultimate stage of a learner-centered curriculum (1995). We agree with this and are gradually involving students in decisions as to what they will study and with who, in regular class. This is a radical break from the lockstep class where all students are more or less studying the same thing at the same time.

Curriculum: a frame for instructional materials

In order to design materials to operate such a program, we first need a coherent theoretical framework. At the level of curriculum, which Candlin (1984) describes as being concerned with making general statements about language learning, learning purpose and experience; we have outlined our context in the previous section.

More specifically, what should be the design principles of our materials? Minimally, we must consider the following factors when designing our own, or exploiting commercially published materials:

- themes and topics
- linguistic features of text
- discourse features of text

- interaction potential (what and with whom)
- roles of learners
- roles of teachers
- learner training
- learner strategies and reflection on the learning process
- evaluation and assessment (concerning learners, learning and materials)

Syllabus and Task

The above form general guidelines and we will now look at our material at the level of syllabus, which is a more local account of what happens at classroom level. The "task" is the building block of our syllabus and basic unit of material design. There are many different definitions of task but Nunan's definition of *communicative* task (1989, p. 10), is relatively succinct: "...a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form." When designing or modifying tasks, they can be analyzed from the point of view of:

- goals
- input (linguistic or otherwise)
- activities which lead on form input

Other considerations concern role and settings. At a higher level of organization, we must consider the grading, sequencing and integrating of tasks. These comprise the syllabus.

If we have a syllabus organized by task, the system is too arbitrary. So we logically group tasks according to theme, or ideational content area which gives coherence to the syllabus. We can relate these aspects of the curriculum logically as follows:

curriculum
↓
syllabus
↓
theme
↓
task

Task Types

The following is an approximate typology of the task types that we are drawing on. We feel that classifying tasks according to lexical, functional and grammatical categories is not helpful and these are secondary concerns. Instead we have organized our tasks according to their communicative character:

- awareness raising
- learner interactive skills development
- information exchange
- comprehension and exploration of content
- values clarification and discussion
- imagination gap
- role play and creative dramatics
- task/program evaluation (in both cognitive and affective dimensions)

This last task type is a way of embedding learner- training/ reflection activities into the course, much in the same way as in the *Tapestry* coursebook series (Scarcella and Oxford, 1993) or Nunan's *ATLAS* coursebook. We prefer to situate such tasks within a discoursal setting rather than de-contextualizing learner training as in the case of Sinclair and Lewis (1989).

Operationalizing Materials--Our Framework

As described above, our materials consist essentially of tasks which are "chained" (logically and sequentially-related) together to form entities within themes. In selecting what they will do in class, students select themes of interest or relevance to themselves and may also select tasks within themes. Diagram 1 shows the prototypical organization of a theme. Typically, in the first (Content) stage, students focus on analysis tasks of text (aural or written) in order to build schemata in the subject area and also develop their lexical field.

This is necessary before work in the second (process) stage can proceed. Here we have used the terms "content" and "process" as used by Legutke and Thomas (1991, p. 17) where content materials mainly provide input for communication in the target language and where process materials stimulate interaction in the classroom group, creating opportunity for learning and practice.

Borrowing from Stern's (1990) terminology, we wish students to engage in more "analysis"-type tasks at the content stage and more "experiential" tasks at the process stage. Analytic tasks include focus on aspects of language, including phonology, grammar, and discourse; cognitive study of language items where items are made salient and related to other systems; and practice or rehearsal of language items and attention to accuracy. By way of contrast, the more experiential nature of tasks in the process stage includes greater priority of meaning transfer, and fluency over linguistic error avoidance and accuracy, and

greater diversity of social interaction.

We see both stages one and two (Diagram 1) as being vital but balance between the two is necessary. Many foreign language classrooms are too heavily weighted towards analytic tasks with little space for meaningful interaction to occur. Such often happens, for example, when students analyze text for comprehension and linguistic features for the majority of class time, then end by very briefly discussing their personal opinions or reactions to the text. Equally unsatisfactorily, some classes may spend the majority of time on project work which has not been situated or grounded in adequate preparation and some analysis of thematic area. The outcomes of such work are often trivial, superficial and overly brief. We see progression from stage one to stage two as being closely related and caution should be taken about stressing one at the expense of the other.

Stage three (peer teaching) is an optional stage which can be exploited, preferably later in the course when students may have developed towards autonomy in their learning. As an example, Assinder (1991) has described a class where learners designed vocabulary, comprehension and discourse tasks; built around TV clips of simplified current affairs, and used these to teach other learners and creates optimal conditions for interaction.

In stage four, learners reflect on their own learning and also the materials they have used; through journals, questionnaires and/or interview. The process of doing this, itself forms learning tasks for students. In a similar way, information from student evaluation of materials gives feedback for deletion, rewriting or reorganization of items. In this way, the framework itself and units of it are flexible and provisional, and are in a constant state of review.

Operationalizing Materials--Example

While Diagram 1 provides a framework, Diagram 2 shows a worked example. Again, this is provisional and is one that we have used recently. The theme is titled "Travel/The World" and includes the experiences and observations of people who have lived, worked or traveled in societies other than their own. In this instance we have used published coursebooks in the content stage in order to set up interaction in the process stage.

Although not apparent in Diagram 2, tasks between the content and process level are chained. For example in the content stage, the reading based on tourist guides of Tokyo will logically be a model for the presentation (video) in the process stage. In the same way, the two listening exercises in the content stage provide schema and lexis which may be exploited, if students wish, to interview someone about "life in another society," as shown in the process stage of the diagram.

Self-direction is alien to the prior learning experience of most of our students so choice about what to study should be introduced gradually. At the beginning of the year, the teacher will select a theme and present some or all of the content materials as a whole class activity. The teacher might then herself nominate groups and set groups the job of choosing an activity in the project stage. If done in class time, the teacher can ensure that negotiating what to do and determining roles is conducted in the target language.

This small group negotiation itself constitutes a task and moreover, the most valuable one. We contend that this negotiation is the only "real world" task that students do, since all our pedagogic tasks are to some extent contrived. It is this authenticity which lends purpose and hence value to the activity.

Conclusion

We have argued that some degree of self-directed learning is desirable and maybe necessary for the development of effective curricula proficiency concerned with second language proficiency. We hope that this description of our work in progress concerning design of instructional materials will be useful to other teachers with similar interests.

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Diagram 1: Stages in a Theme

DIAGRAM 1—STAGES IN A THEME

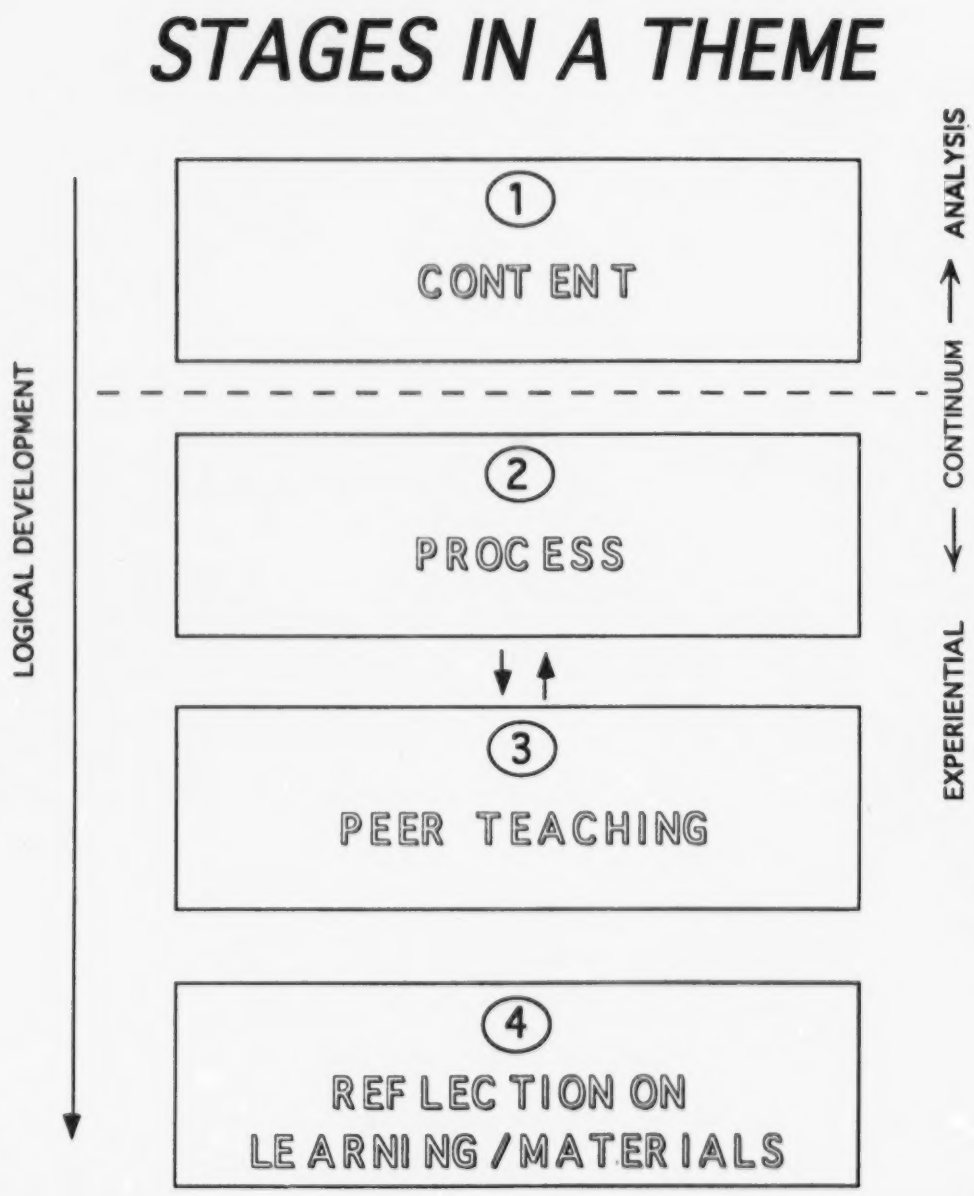


Diagram 2: Sample Theme

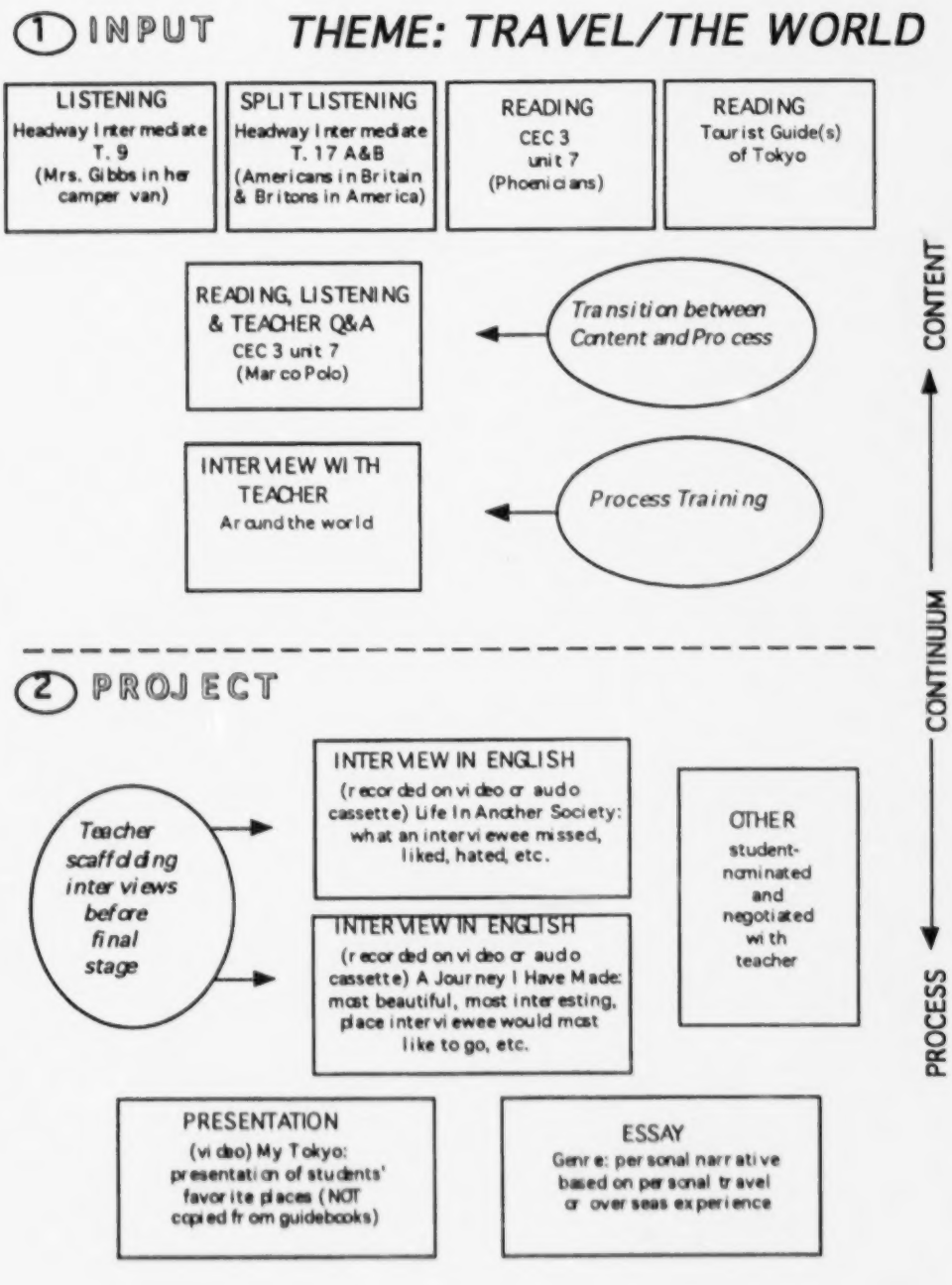
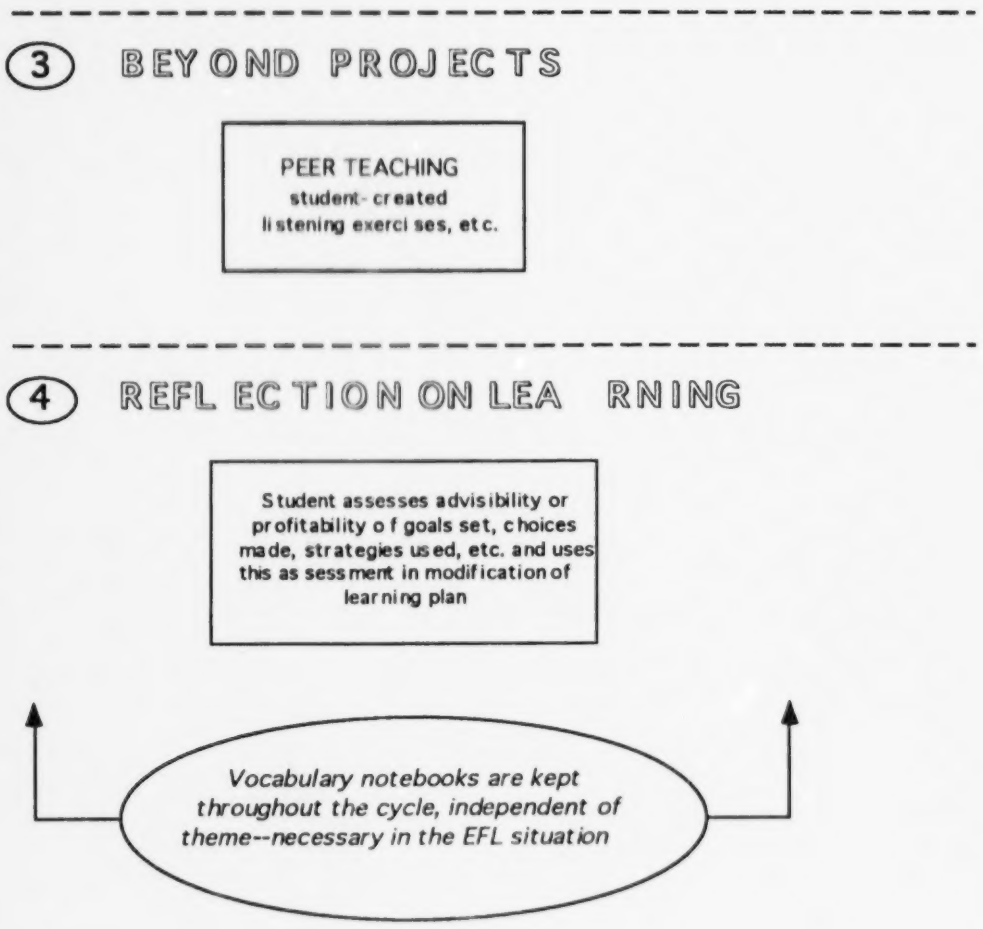

① INPUT
THEME: TRAVEL/THE WORLD
LISTENING
Headway Intermediate T. 9
(Mrs. Gibbs in her camper van)
SPLIT LISTENING
Headway Intermediate T. 17 A&B
(Americans in Britain & Britons in America)
READING
CEC 3 unit 7
(Phoenicians)
READING
Tourist Guide(s) of Tokyo
READING, LISTENING & TEACHER Q&A
CEC 3 unit 7
(Marco Polo)
Transition between Content and Process
INTERVIEW WITH TEACHER
Around the world
Process Training
CONTENT
CONTINUUM
PROCESS
② PROJECT
Teacher scaffolding interviews before final stage
INTERVIEW IN ENGLISH
(recorded on video or audio cassette) Life In Another Society: what an interviewee missed, liked, hated, etc.
INTERVIEW IN ENGLISH
(recorded on video or audio cassette) A Journey I Have Made: most beautiful, most interesting, place interviewee would most like to go, etc.
OTHER
student-nominated and negotiated with teacher
PRESENTATION
(video) My Tokyo: presentation of students' favorite places (NOT copied from guidebooks)
ESSAY
Genre: personal narrative based on personal travel or overseas experience

Diagram 2: Sample Theme (continued)


3 BEYOND PROJECTS
PEER TEACHING
student-created
listening exercises, etc.
4 REFLECTION ON LEARNING
Student assesses advisibility or profitability of goals set, choices made, strategies used, etc. and uses this as sessment in modification of learning plan
Vocabulary notebooks are kept throughout the cycle, independent of theme--necessary in the EFL situation

Developing Business English Materials for Japan

Ian Harrison, Thomas Healy, & R. Tapp
Kanda Institute of Foreign Languages

The Institutional Context

The context of this study is the curriculum innovation project effected at Kanda Institute of Foreign Languages (KIFL), a two-year vocational college in Tokyo. Students follow core courses in general and occupational English, computer skills and Japanese business practices. They obtain credits by following courses in one or more electives - the hotel or tourism industries, general business, foreign languages, and translation/interpretation. There are approximately 110 Japanese and 80 expatriate faculty members. Expatriate faculty are mainly American but there are also teachers of thirteen other nationalities. Administrators are predominantly Japanese.

The great majority of students graduating from KIFL, in common with many other vocational college, junior college, and university students, will never participate in high-level contract negotiations or make important boardroom decisions. Instead, they are involved in lower level but still important transactions providing goods and services. This was confirmed by research that also indicated that contrary to received wisdom, a large number of the graduates use English in some way in their jobs, whether talking to foreigners over the telephone, reading incoming international facsimile messages, or completing order forms (Goodman & Orikasa, 1993). We report briefly on the tasks they engage in and the language skills required to complete these tasks in a later section of this paper.

Curriculum Renewal Project Context

The development of the materials described in this paper was not done as an isolated initiative. The institution was undergoing curriculum reform and the workplace/business English materials were only one aspect of this renewal project, briefly described in this section.

Research teams, consisting of faculty and administration volunteers, were set up as part of the collaborative curriculum renewal process. Early teams researched student needs and aspirations, using a number of data sources - students, teachers, employers, high schools. Concurrent teams formulated curriculum aims, goals and exit level objectives. Subsequent teams conducted research into current theory and practice in the teaching and learning of vocabulary, grammar, listening, reading and writing, and into learner styles and strategies and discourse and pragmatics. A further team researched current thinking in learner assessment and developed procedures and instruments which would enable teachers and administrators to obtain diagnostic assessment information on their learners.

By the time that materials developers were appointed, there was a wealth of information for them to draw upon. Both the general English and the workplace English course writers had available to them information on what students needed and wanted, on current language learning theory. They also had access to a reference list of task types that teachers considered most suitable for KIFL students. When we started planning the workplace English course materials, however, we discovered that while we had this substantial data bank to draw upon, there was still something missing. We discuss in the next section what information had already

been obtained, how this was done and what information we found missing.

Data Collection

Needs Analysis - Purposes

Before the curriculum renewal project was initiated at KIFL, workplace English courses followed a traditional grammar-translation, chalk and talk approach. One aim of the project was to create a tailor-made, task-based course which would enable students to acquire the language skills they need when they enter the work force.

The first stage of the materials development process, therefore, involved ethnographic research into the tasks that KIFL graduates actually complete at work. We aimed to determine what kinds of companies the graduates work in, the regularity of English usage in the workplace, the tasks the graduates perform in English, and the language skills they need to perform these tasks. A final aim was to collect real-world reading and speaking texts to use as authentic input.

Development of Procedures

A series of interviews was planned with employers and graduates to collect the data. The main focus was initially on managers/supervisors, since it was felt that they would have a more thorough understanding of their industry. The initial plan was to survey the 200 companies which regularly employ KIFL graduates. However, we were advised that on past experience, only 3% of companies would reply, since this was the typical response rate for surveys sent without notice to companies and schools.

We therefore decided on the more practical idea of interviewing a stratified sample of 20 companies. From an analysis of the data on companies which had recruited KIFL graduates in 1991-1993 we determined that the graduates were recruited by four main types of employers. Twenty-nine percent of the graduates went to service industries such as hotels, airlines, airports, tourist agencies. A similar proportion was employed by trading houses and manufacturers. Twenty-one percent were recruited by banks or other financial institutions. The same percentage worked in transportation companies.

We selected five companies from each of these groups on the basis of the companies recruiting the highest number of graduates, and produced questionnaires focusing on four areas:

1. What tasks do our graduates handle in the workplace?
2. How often are these tasks carried out?
3. What English skills are needed for these tasks?
4. Can you give us any samples of language text or realia?

The only difference between the surveys was the list of tasks that appeared on the questionnaire. For example, 'checking in guests' appeared on the hotel questionnaire, but not on the bank questionnaire. 'Handling foreign exchange transactions' appeared on both the hotel form and the bank form but not on the trading company form.

Twenty interviews were conducted, mainly in Japanese, using English and Japanese questionnaires. The employers promised to supply the real-world texts after the interviews. However, they were generally reluctant to hand over any documents or texts, other than annual reports.

Data analysis

After data collection, we felt we had sufficient information to be able to proceed with writing materials. We felt that we knew the different proportions of industries where the graduates work, the tasks they engage in using English, and the language skills they need to perform these tasks. This section describes briefly some of the more salient findings, described in detail in Goodman & Orikasa (1993).

We found, for example, that graduates in the travel services (hotels, airlines, airports, travel agencies) perform a greater range of tasks than those in the other industries. These service industry tasks include checking in passengers or guests, handling reservations, and foreign exchange transactions, which are speaking and listening tasks, and reading and writing tasks such as itinerary planning. We noted that speaking and listening are very important in the manufacturing and transportation industries.

This was in contrast to the belief held before conducting the research that these skills were not so necessary in these industries. Tasks which require speaking and listening ability in these industries include taking messages and dealing with queries on the telephone. Concerning reading and writing, we discovered employees are primarily involved in completing pro-forma documents, rather than producing new text. These documents include purchase orders, invoices, and shipping documents.

Refinement of Data Collection Process

At the beginning of the writing stage we relied on the list of task types derived from the

questionnaire forms. However, the information was insufficient. We knew what tasks the graduates did - for example, handling orders - and that reading and writing skills were involved, but we did not know what these tasks entailed exactly. We did not know enough about workplace *procedures* to be able to develop pedagogic tasks.

Another round of interviews was therefore necessary to learn more about these workplace procedures. Much of this additional research was informal as the focus was shifted away from line managers to the graduates themselves, who were far less secretive, and who provided a wealth of documents. One illustration of this is a graduate who supplied completed order forms, and explained to us the entire procedure relating to international ordering.

Materials Development

Overall Structure

After examining the needs analysis survey data, we structured our materials around the four sectors where KIFL graduates are most commonly employed: banking, hotel, airport, and general office locations. We added a fifth location, the restaurant, because many of our students already have part-time jobs in this setting. They are familiar with this context and can grasp the reality of the workplace tasks set there.

Task Selection

We based our real-world tasks on the needs analysis data plus data obtained during subsequent visits to companies. As described earlier, KIFL graduates in the workplace were the most productive data source for obtaining information on specific job duties and on how English was involved in fulfilling these duties. We also consulted Japanese part-time teachers at KIFL since many of these had worked in the airline industry, trading companies, banks, and other businesses relevant to the locations we had chosen.

After this second round of data collection, we listed all the possible tasks, then pared down the list (omitting tasks that were too technical, too complicated, or not applicable to a wide enough range of jobs). Three task chains were selected for a unit of material for each sector - examples of task chains would be 'describing a product' in the office sector, or 'checking-in passengers' in the airport unit (Healy & Tapp, 1995). We finally consulted our sources again to check the authenticity of the tasks we had chosen.

Development of Pedagogic Tasks

As indicated earlier, the initial research did not provide the textual information we needed for pedagogic task development. We needed, for example, hotel services directories, maps, and bank ATM brochures to use in creating tasks. These documents, while authentic and containing authentic language, had to be scaled down because they could not easily be included in the materials - a common dilemma facing materials developers using authentic data. In some instances we assembled components from several sources to make a generic document such as a restaurant menu. Finally we checked again with our sources to see if the tasks and input texts were realistic.

Development of Task Chain Template

Our task chain template consists of the following components:

Task checklist: This gives students a chance to survey what they will be learning.
Consider this: This section sets the context for the task and establishes what kinds of transactions are involved in a particular setting.
Focus on this: This reading or listening section involves either a workplace transaction or an input that acquaints students with something related to the workplace. It also provides language needed for completion of the productive part of the task.
Practice this: This section involves controlled speaking or writing practice using language from the input previously worked on.
Build on this: In this section students transfer the language they have learned and apply it to new situations.
Try this yourself: Project-based activities requiring students to select from a range of options and create an original piece of work through a process of individual or group research. This section thus allows the student to go beyond the scaled down pieces of authentic data that they has dealt with and begin to process longer stretches of text.
Task checklist with checkbox: The list reappears with checkboxes to provide an opportunity to reflect upon what has been studied. By checking off the tasks they have completed, students gain a sense of accomplishment, we feel, and a clear statement of what they have learned.

Evaluative Feedback

Evaluative feedback and suggestions from a number of people were incorporated into the

materials. The project director, as series editor, gave comments and suggestions on the content, progression, appropriacy and variety of tasks, and the clarity of rubrics. We also received feedback from KIFL teachers and administration members who commented on the authenticity and structure of tasks. Finally we received classroom-based feedback from teachers using the material. This included information on student response, problems encountered, coverage of the material, and how to improve tasks. Without this important feedback information, we would not have been able to develop appropriate and realistic materials.

Issues of Authenticity

Though we aimed for authenticity in our tasks, a pedagogical task can never be exactly the same as a real world task. For reasons of time, space, or simplicity, a textbook task must be a compressed version of a real world task. The essential connection to the real world must be made through the context supplied by the teacher or by the student's own research. The project work undertaken by the student extends the context of the task and changes her view of the world as she received it through the textbook. The learner authenticates the text/task by comparing the way things happen in a real situation with their experience of that task or situation in the textbook. The student's world view becomes more realistic and takes into account the variety and ambiguity of the world as it is. We hope that this project work will make the students more comfortable and more able to cope with their real workplace situations when they take up employment.

We feel that we are providing a context, arming the students with information and language, and sending them out into the real world, first to do projects and then to complete similar tasks in real world jobs. We aim to build student confidence by providing them with the background knowledge and language skills that are needed to complete workplace tasks in English and to make them into a successful international worker.

Conclusion

The process of writing task based materials based on authentic data is necessarily complex, particularly where this is a done as part of a larger curriculum renewal process. The obtaining of data on which to base the creation of pedagogic tasks might seem straightforward to organize but this proved not to be the case. This project used several different data sets but when the actual process of writing began, it soon became clear that despite the richness of the data obtained, there was still something lacking. Perhaps this is inevitable. Detailed course and materials planning can clearly not be done before research and data collection. It is, however, difficult if not impossible to decide what detailed data are required exactly until later in the process. The solution would thus seem to be something similar to what was adopted in this project: a preliminary data collection period followed by some course and materials structural planning in a fairly broad way. Only when writers begin to plan the pedagogic tasks, will they be in a position to know exactly which data are lacking and where and how they can best obtain these data. The process is thus cyclical in nature, further refinement and greater detail being required at each successive stage. This would seem to be the most practical way forward for similar writing projects in other contexts.

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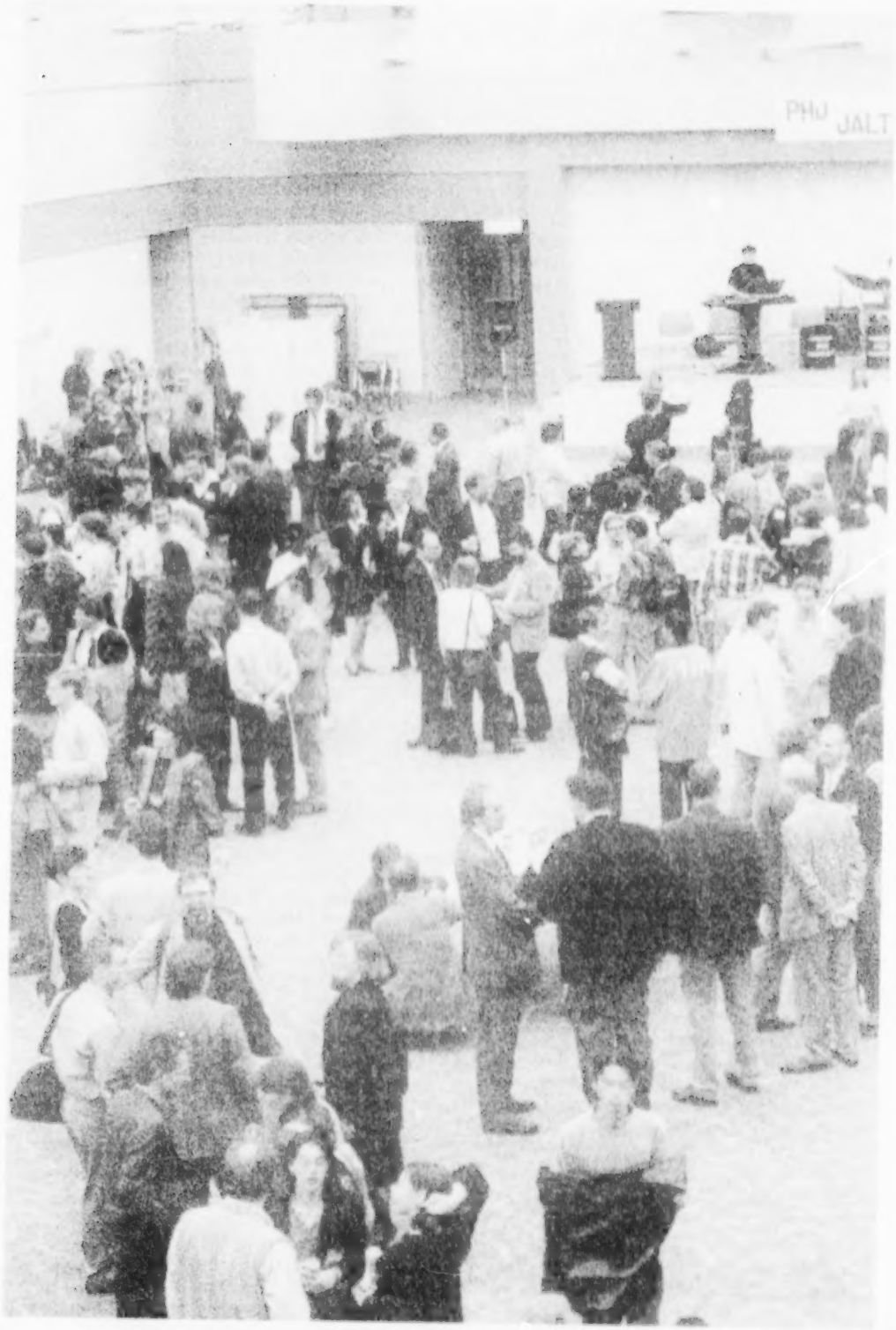

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